

# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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## Editor's Page

### OUTSTANDING TEACHERS

IS it possible to identify the qualities that account for unusual success in teaching? Judgments are subjective, personality often involves intangibles, and certainly outstanding teachers conform to no single pattern. Nevertheless "A Study of Personal Qualities Essential in a Superior Teacher of the Social Studies," is reported in the appendix to *The Teacher of the Social Studies* by William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander (New York: Scribner, 1937). Edward P. Smith, former supervisor of social studies in the New York State Education Department, visited the classes of 101 superior teachers in nine states, checked his observations by conferences both with the teachers and with eighty supervisors, and in addition used teachers' self-rating cards and many pupil judgments. The resulting tabulation, which assumes "broad knowledge of subject matter, some skill in technique of teaching, and reasonably good health," and which seems to concern dominant rather than contributing traits, shows ten qualities found in from twenty to forty-eight instances, and seven others recorded in at least four.

The ten qualities, in order, are reverence for truth, intelligent optimism, social altruism, sympathy, impartiality, interpretive mind, progressiveness, curiosity, culture, and imagination. Perhaps the order has no great significance; possibly in a more elaborate and extensive study the seven "lesser" qualities—dramatic instinct, selective mind, balance, vigorous personality,

tactfulness, ability to inspire, confidence in leadership, and "loyalty to ideals, mental and moral courage, genuineness and sincerity, freedom from hypocrisy"—would rise in the scale; possibly other factors, as care in preparation, ability in organization, incisiveness in presentation, would be more specifically recognized.

ASSUMING, however, that these are the essential characteristics of exceptional teachers, are they inherited or acquired? Are good teachers unusual individuals, or unusually well prepared? Are the qualities listed peculiar to successful social-studies teaching or characteristic of superior persons in general?

In considering the need for providing competent teachers in its *Conclusions and Recommendations* the Commission on the Social Studies declared: "The problem is threefold: (a) the selection of gifted young men and women for the profession, (b) the organization of a program of training commensurate with the purpose of social science instruction, and (c) the provision of conditions of work which will encourage the fullest development of the personal and professional powers of the teacher."

Dr Bagley's unencouraging account of our present personnel as a whole, together with its preparation and selection, and the incisive comments of the Commission on teacher selection and training and on teaching conditions bear directly on the question of how to provide more of those essential qualities described in Mr Smith's report.

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# The Past and a New Social Order

F. MELVYN LAWSON

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**T**HERE is a growing tendency among educators to talk and think in terms of the "new social order." It is claimed that the old one has failed, and that evidences of its inadequacy are everywhere apparent. Poverty in the midst of plenty, unemployment in the presence of a widespread desire to work, war in the face of a heartfelt need for peace, ignorance in spite of the knowledge of how to overcome it, and chaos in spite of the fact that there has never been a time when man has had more knowledge and training in how to establish confidence and order, are merely a few of the obvious indications that something is wrong with the present state of affairs. Truly a new social order must come or we perish.

At the same time that these arguments are advanced with such force, curriculum makers are continually telling us that we cannot hope to build a new social order until we divorce our courses of study, particularly the social studies, from their emphasis upon the past, and proceed to place that emphasis upon the present, the contemporary, the current. It is pointed out that the past is a closed issue, a shut

door. The present, we are told, lies before us for our observation. The future is an open question, the only question we can do anything about. Now and tomorrow are all that count. As a nationally known authority on curriculum principles and practices said to me recently: "The answers to our problems are not in the past. We cannot look behind us for a solution. We must have a knowledge of the present, and we must bend our every energy in an effort to understand our today, if we would build a better tomorrow." True words, these, but the interpretation given them by some modern educators gives cause for question.

**P**RACTICALLY all thoughtful educators will grant that the sentiments expressed above have considerable merit. All believe that there must be a shift in emphasis from the static to the dynamic in education. All believe that there must be a more pointed consideration of the here and now in the school curriculum. All believe that neither the present order nor education as it is functioning in that order is perfect, and all are dedicated to the building of a better tomorrow through the mental and physical resources of today. Yet, from here on, the universality of agreement ceases. How to focus the attention of students intelligently upon the present world, what subject matter to use in order to bring students to grips with that world, and how to project the efforts of young people toward the building of a new social order are much debated questions. It is not what we want that is perplexing us as much as it is how to get it.

The vice-principal in charge of instruction at the Sacramento Senior High School, Sacramento, California, offers some important ideas for the consideration of those educators who are today bent upon the task of creating through the schools a better tomorrow.

It is on this question of how to make students aware of their todays that much of our modern thinking and contemporary action has gone astray. We have naïvely assumed that, because the old emphasis in education was failing, a new emphasis, any new emphasis, would succeed. Hence many educators have interpreted the demand for a more up-to-date curriculum in the social studies to mean a curriculum built upon the latest news dispatch and the most recent radio announcement. What happened last year, a decade, or a century ago, is dead, and with its passing, so the assumption is, has gone its value for study. This sort of thinking needs correction, for it springs from a false conception of sound modern curriculum philosophy, and it flies in the face of common sense.

**E**DUCATIONAL philosophers who have pleaded in recent years for a more modernized and "functional" social-studies curriculum never intended that their exhortations should lead to an elimination of the study of the past. They merely asked that such studies be revitalized and that they be made to apply to the everyday life of the student subjected to them. However some educators have interpreted the "present centered" social-studies curriculum as one where the past should be omitted merely because it is the past. These persons have "viewed with alarm" the course of study that suggests any form of chronological or historical approach. In fact the very word "history" itself, to them, has taken on an offensive odor. And one sees them sniff disgustingly whenever the term is loosed upon the atmosphere of curriculum discussion by someone whose educational nostrils are not so sensitive.

Thus, the time has come when we must reconsider the meaning of the so called "functional" course of study in the social field. Can the high sounding objectives which preface most new social-studies courses be reached by placing an educational premium upon the present? Has the

past no place in understanding the current social world? Has the past no contribution to make in our thinking about the possible "new social order"? These are all questions that every social-minded educator must face, if he seriously contemplates the application of those modern curricular principles which would make the twentieth-century school a laboratory of contemporaneous social experiences.

**I**N attempting to sketch a consideration of these questions it is first necessary to arrive at some agreement on the basic objectives of our educational system. There probably never will be complete agreement on this point, but we must proceed from some basis of general understanding.

If our fundamental aim is to inculcate a set of ideas that conform to a previously conceived plan of what society should be, then the past has little or no value to the pupil because where man has been is of no consequence, and where he is going is planned. Mastery of a handed-down pattern is the all important thing. Let the cloth be cut and the child made to fit it.

If our underlying goal is merely to teach students self-expression without any well defined restraints, knowledge of the past is again of little importance, for given the opportunity to do as they wish, most persons are capable of devising what they consider to be satisfying activities. If mere self-expression is what we are trying to bring out, we need not worry about many of the things which now concern us. Human beings will find ways of making themselves felt and heard under any system of instruction or organization. They do not even need a school to realize this objective.

**O**N the other hand, if the basic purpose of modern public education is to teach students how to understand the world in which they live, and how to improve it, then it appears that it will be most difficult to disregard the place of the past in our curricular considerations. For the modern



world will never yield to pressure for universal improvement until men learn to "temper the sensations of the hour by reference to the long experiences of the race."

The strength of this position appears to be obvious when we attempt to define the present, this seemingly all important instant in which we live. What is modern life? What is this modern world which we need to understand in order to live more abundantly? What, indeed, is it but the stage of social and biological evolution in which man finds himself at the moment? And what meaning can one obtain regarding the present status of an evolutionary organism, be it biological or social, if he does not see it in relation to its past stages? What real significance has today unless one can remember yesterday and appreciate the difference between the two? Today standing alone is merely an isolated moment in the individual and collective life of man. Today understood in the light of how and why it dawned is the latest stage of an ever unfolding process, which is the result of cause, and which has purpose, form, and meaning. Modern life does not merely imply experiencing today, but also understanding such living in the light of life's development. This light is generated in the past, and it is only through a knowledge of the past that its beams are visible to the extent that our present stands silhouetted before us.

If we admit that the present only has meaning to the degree that we realize how it became what it is, we see that there is a definite connection between a knowledge of the past and an anticipation of the future, or "new social order." For if the past explains the present, and if a knowledge of the present is necessary to build for the future, then the past is most decidedly linked to any future "order" under consideration. In fact our future "order" is merely a later, as yet unreached, stage in the evolution of our social organism.

The future is certain to play queer tricks on those who ignore the past in their quest

for a more abundant present. If a people is really sincere in its efforts to build a new social order, new in the sense of involving the extension of the abundant life on a large scale to heretofore underprivileged and exploited classes, then it would seem that a knowledge of the various social orders which have existed in history is an inescapable necessity. Otherwise any social order will inevitably fall victim to those forces which have caused other forms of social organizations to disintegrate and collapse. It is a truism that those who are ignorant of the past are doomed to repeat it.

The fact that many courses in modern high schools and colleges spend considerable time on the past is not wrong in itself, for there is no escape from such an approach to a well rounded education. We cannot know the future, nor can we chart the general direction we want to take in the future, without a compass constructed out of the experiences of the ages. Likewise we cannot know the present except as it bears a definite relationship to what has gone before it came into being. Thus the crux of the problem comes in constantly making clear to students why a knowledge of the past is a necessary part of a real education.

If teachers will make the past a living thing, a link in human development, a segment of human progress, a step in human evolution, it will be found that students not only enjoy the historical phase of a given study but will realize that there is no true understanding of the present manifestation of that study without it. The trouble lies in the approach we have made to the past. It has not been studied. It has been "learned." It has not been analyzed. It has been inculcated. It has not been critically appraised. It has been worshipped. History has been considered an end in itself instead of a means by which an end might be reached. And until teachers themselves become conscious of the idea, and pass it on to their students, that life since its beginning has been a process of unfolding relationships, and that history is the vital, graphic story

of that process, students will never grasp anything like a true conception of what life really is or what its potentialities are. Neither will they be able to understand the age in which they live, and, failing in such an understanding, they will be incapable of building any truly new social order to eliminate the defects of the present one.

THUS, it would appear that, far from discarding the past as material to be studied, we must, if we are really to understand the present and build a new life for the future, include as much of the historical background of human evolution as it is possible for students to assimilate. However we must study that background not merely as a series of isolated nonsense syllables to

be learned for the sake of developing the memory or inculcating "discipline," but as the chapters in the unfolding of the most dynamic drama ever enacted on this planet—the social evolution of man himself. When this fact is recognized, we shall cease talking of building a new social order through a mere study of the present and will cease to turn out educational products who think that current events represent the sum total of all knowledge, and that an acquaintance with them is sufficient to build an age of abundance, security, peace, and prosperity. Until this fact is recognized we shall merely continue to fumble not only with contemporary social, economic, and political realities, but also with the possibilities of bringing about a truly new and better era.

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"The program of social science instruction should give a broad and comprehensive conception of the evolution of civilization, laying stress on the idea of development, drawing contrasts between the present and the past, embracing the diverse contributions of races and peoples, religions and cultures, and giving a broad perspective of the fortunes, problems, and achievements of mankind.

"The program of social science instruction should provide for a similar but more detailed study of the evolution of Western civilization, emphasis being placed on changing modes of production and distribution, on the succession of social systems, ways of life and ethical conceptions, on the development of democratic ideals and practices, on the accumulation and spread of knowledge and learning, on the advance of science, technology, and invention, on the abiding traditions of the unity of Western culture and on its growing integration in world culture.

"The program of social science instruction should provide for a yet more detailed study of the history of the American people with particular reference to the material conquest of the continent, the development of the democratic heritage, the popular struggle for freedom and opportunity, the spread of individualistic economy, the rise of technology and industrial civilization, the increase of productivity, the emergence of an integrated economy, the growth of local, regional, and national planning and the extension of economic, political, and cultural relationships with other nations and peoples of the world." *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. New York: Scribner, 1934, pp. 51-52.



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# The College Orientation Course

W. PERRY KISSICK

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**T**HERE can be no doubt that an orientation problem exists today, but it is by no means new. During the post-war period it has become increasingly complex, and experiments in solving it have grown in number and variety. Two of the causes for this phenomenon are the greatly increased attendance in schools and colleges with coincident heterogeneous background, unequal ability, and varying amount of intellectual interest, and, second, the expansion of the various social sciences themselves and, as a natural result, the increasing importance of social sciences in the curricula. History for example has expanded with the passing of time and with a widening outlook. In general the other social studies—sociology, social psychology, economics, anthropology, psychology, and political science—have also all widened their fields of knowledge and interest and have organized themselves into separate academic departments.

If another cause is needed to account for the present stir in the camp of the social scientists, it may be found in the rapidly developing interest in "general education," which challenges both the tendency towards

specialization at secondary and junior-college levels, and the jealousies of closely related departments, stressing the weaknesses of a system that separates knowledge into watertight compartments. During the period of the rise of the social studies as organized disciplines it was natural that each one sought to draw apart in order to make more obvious the fact that it was treating the common stock of material from a distinct point of view which entitled it to a separate existence. Having succeeded in this, many workers in the respective fields have discovered that they need the light which other approaches can shed upon their own field, and that their students need it also. Hence, they have become interested in a co-operative course. The chief things expected of such a course are to prepare specifically for serious departmental work by rounding off some of the rough corners remaining from high school and setting the pace for college study, by condensing the increasing mass of material in the various departments into a comprehensive survey so that students are provided with a more homogeneous background and a minimum of facts common to the social sciences as a group, and by providing some experience with the various fields so that a more intelligent choice of a major subject can be made; to provide the student not making a major in the social sciences with the most comprehensive view in the shortest amount of time; to eliminate the rivalry for students to fill introductory departmental courses; and to unify the various fields so that interrelations will be apparent.

Characteristic of recent curriculum change is the tendency to cut across subject-matter lines and to stress relationships. This article is based on several years of experimentation at Earlham College, where the author is head of the department of history.

The difficulties attending such a course have been many. Who should take the new hybrid under his wings? If the staff of one department were to do it, the others might well feel at a disadvantage and have some misgivings as to whether a proper breadth and neutrality would be preserved. If all should try to co-operate, the compromise might be agreeable to none, for it might be treated too much from a departmental standpoint by each instructor; it might lack unity, giving a little to each subject in almost separate parts, each so small that the student would not be fitted for advanced work in any one of them; and the advantages of faculty specialization would be destroyed. Some instructors have shown no interest in the matter, claiming that, since method is the primary consideration and can be taught equally well by any departmental course, it makes no difference what the student takes.

An examination of representative books published for orientation courses reveals the operation of these difficulties and the experimental stage in which the movement rests. For examples, one is a history of civilization, another mainly a history of thought, still another hardly more than a course in high-school civics, a fourth an introduction to economics, and a fifth has some sociological coloring and occasionally assumes that the student is familiar with history. One recent orientation volume claims to be for use in the field of natural science but points out that a number of the social sciences are involved in it. In its list of social sciences history is practically the only one omitted, and yet a number of the chapters would make excellent reading in a history course. A few co-operative books and syllabi are being used.

In an effort to make some contribution to the solution of the orientation problem the present writer has experimented upon ten successive classes chiefly of freshmen and sophomores with a course in the history of civilization, the predecessor of which was a conventional departmental introductory course in general European history. Now,

after ten trials, its orientation value as well as its departmental usefulness is becoming more apparent. To a questionnaire given students who had taken the course in 1928-29 and 1929-30, they replied, almost without exception, that, during the one and two years that they had been away from the course, it had had value for them for general orientation in the world of knowledge. They named as specific courses in which the civilization course had been helpful: other history courses, English and literature, economics, German, sociology, political science, French, art, social psychology, speech, biology, geology, philosophy, and history of music. The testimony of students during the actual progress of the course was equally convincing.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL DISTRIBUTION

○ F the three main features of the course, the first to be described will be the chronological distribution of emphasis. The first two weeks of the course are devoted to a study of some concepts basic to the social sciences. What is "culture" or "civilization"? What are its typical modes of behavior? What rôle do biological, geographical, and social factors play in it? What are the typical features of institutions? During the next four weeks a survey of primitive and ancient culture is made. The special aim of the work of this six weeks is not the mastery of details but, first, to give a preliminary acquaintance with important generalizations illustrated over and over by specific historical situations and facts throughout the remainder of the course; second, to give the student a taste of what the social sciences, as distinct from history, are like and to enable him to see, as he goes on in the course, how useful all of these fields are to each other; third, to give a sense of the nature of the chief institutions, material culture, and mental life of man before he learned to write, and to view them as the foundations upon which the historic period is based; fourth, to give a knowledge of the chief contributions of the ancient peoples

which were taken up in part by men of medieval and early modern Europe and spread to the ends of the earth; fifth, to give perspective, so that, for example, the relative youth of American and European civilization will be clear against the background of man's whole life on the earth or even against the long record of such a civilization as that of the Chinese. In spite of the briefness of this study experience seems to justify the statement that the alert student will carry away the five basic conceptions mentioned, and that these receive additional emphasis many times throughout the remainder of the course. This introduction is followed by some three months of study on the period from the fifth to the fifteenth century: and the remaining four and a half months of the year are devoted to the period since 1500. Little American history as such is included, but there are many opportunities to correlate it with the world stream as it unfolds.

Such a division of time is thus a compromise between the views of those who still hold to the supreme importance of early history at the expense of modern and those who cut loose from roots and continuities and emphasize only the period since 1500. This compromise also takes account of something frequently overlooked, namely, the implications of the principle of evolution for the study of human society and its history. A biologist would protest that his academic freedom was destroyed if he had to limit his teaching to the horse in the five-toe stage or to contemporary forms of life. He knows that not a single thing, fossil or living, can be understood adequately in its immediate form only.

Historians ought to feel the same way about historical events and institutions. They will then feel compelled to present the past as a panorama of interacting parts, each indispensable to the others. The unity and flow of history can be emphasized uniquely. The final outcome of early events can be shown. Culture lags and the presence of the past with us today can be revealed

more clearly. More significant comparisons on a wider scale can be made. Moreover, the practical utility for the layman is greater. Lecturers, for example, do not draw historical illustrations from any single period. A comprehensive examination over the year's work will aid the student in realizing these values.

The evolutionary point of view also implies that there is a sequence in history as in other courses. To begin one's study of college history with 1500 or 1815 or with American history is not altogether unlike beginning the study of mathematics with calculus. Even if the student has had a survey course in high school, the repetition on a different level, properly conducted, and with adequate library facilities, should be highly profitable.

Also, this compromise on the division of time takes account of the unique and exceptional importance of the period that bears most directly upon the plight of the world today by spending on it half the time and by giving it the emphasis increasingly necessary in a period of struggling democracy. On the other hand the compromise preserves something of the depth and broad cultural value inherent in the study of the early period.

It may be objected that the most desirable goal is not a knowledge of the longest period, with the memorization of the largest possible quantity of facts, but the permanent acquisition of scientific attitudes and knowledge of method, and that this can be accomplished quite as effectively by the intensive study of a narrow period. The large parcel of truth in this point of view ought not to be allowed to obscure the fact that the study of a shorter period necessarily sacrifices almost wholly the unique values that have been described as belonging to the study of the longer. The special values in the intensive study of a short period need not be sacrificed if the course in the longer period received at least eight hours credit. This argument of course loses much of its force if all students take two or three years



of college history covering the entire field, but the fact is that a majority probably take not more than one year.

#### SYNTHESIS

THE second main feature of the course may be described as the synthetic emphasis. The course that covers the whole history of civilization is different from other history courses for several reasons. Its purpose is to create a larger synthesis. It seeks to give an account of each aspect of the past—political, economic, scientific, religious—and then to weave them together, showing how the past is the result of interacting influences, political upon religious, religious upon political, economic upon both, both upon economic. It also becomes possible by such treatment to construct the entire environment surrounding an event, which of course fosters a sense of reality and also ability to visualize and understand events. This can hardly be done if the political strand of the story is studied alone. Its theory of causation is less likely to be narrow and deterministic, as is sometimes the case with courses in purely political or economic history. It is easier to assume in the history of civilization that no single motive or influence—political, economic, geographic, or any other—is the sole creative force from which historic events result, but rather that historical causation is a complex of all of them, with one bulking larger here and another there. Finally, its chronological and geographical scope is wider. It views the evolution of human society in its entirety and as a continuous process. Like a stream, this evolution has many curves and meanderings and is joined by new tributaries, which continually modify it but do not destroy its continuity and symmetry from source to mouth. It does not confine itself to the European tributary alone but includes the whole world. It emphasizes, along with the events that concern a given country, the events that have universal character and show the common experience of the human species.

The historical method, when used in this synthetic rather than in a technical and narrowly circumscribed manner, has all the features possessed by other subjects which make them valuable for orientation and foundation purposes, and more besides. Of course the reciprocal values of all social sciences should be utilized more widely. The writer is fully convinced that the beginning history student needs at least the simpler basic concepts in the social sciences before and during the study of history. It is his experience, however, that a semester course is not needed to present them; that there is an advantage in giving them in conjunction with history; that it is more difficult to study the social sciences without a historical background than *vice versa*; and that, as something to start with, history has advantages. For one thing, while all subjects enlarge a student's experience with life, history to a greater extent than others, by extending the student's memory beyond his own lifetime, brings him in contact with the important situations and great minds of the past so that he can be at home anywhere and at any time during the development of humanity. Moreover the historical approach begins with the concrete. The statement that an event happened at a certain time and place is the simplest thing and should precede any more complicated use of it by the other social sciences. While this is by no means the only function of the historian, it is his first function. History is unique in the amount and character of the perspective it may give.

This synthetic survey of the past has the breadth and inclusiveness which should characterize an orientation course. By including the beginnings and growth of various aspects of life, it deals with at least some of the data treated in other subjects. Even though this treatment is historical rather than technical, it gives the student an unparalleled opportunity to discover over and over again the need for a knowledge of many fields in order to interpret any particular one, thus breaking down

artificial departmental walls. He may get a glimpse of what all fields are like and at least some appreciation of the place each occupies in the panorama of human knowledge. It can be no great heresy for the history instructor to suggest at the time a historical event is studied that certain generalizations are illustrated by it. Students will not appreciate the unique aspects of the crusades or the French revolutionary period less if it is indicated that they reveal something of the laws of crowd and mob action. The account of the relations between the Romans and the barbarian invaders, or the North and South in the United States, especially since 1898, does not become less historical or less interesting and significant if explained as illustrations of such sociological concepts as social accommodation and assimilation. Indeed they become much more significant; and, for the benefit of those historians who may object to the pollution of genuine history with so much "extraneous" matter, let it be said that it is possible for the history instructor to drop these suggestions by the way without in the least abandoning the historical approach or diminishing the value of the course for those students primarily interested in history. Historians who raise this objection cannot expect their colleagues in the other social studies to do all the compromising that must be done in the interest of achieving gains for all.

The synthetic emphasis gives the course orientation value for language and science students as well. Much life and interest can be added to the mechanical process of learning a foreign language by making the student feel the reality of the people whose language he is studying and understand something of the origin and development of their culture. In the absence of an opportunity to travel, or as a supplement to travel, the study of history can do much toward these ends. The reading of foreign historical works may offer the occasion for the practical use of such linguistic ability as may be developed in the language

courses. It is also true that a knowledge of historical background enriches the appreciation of all literature. If the technicalities of the sciences are too great to permit the historian to give more than a general sketch of their history and to relate it to contemporary development, this at least may suggest to the student who expects to take a major in biology or physics, for example, that his subject had a beginning and has not always been just as it is now. He has opportunity to see his favorite science in its relation to other things which man has accomplished. The student whose major field is in the sciences will have a limited amount of time for the social studies and therefore needs a course as inclusive as possible. It is hard to see how any course could answer this need better than the history of civilization, so that its orientation value extends far beyond the group which has special occupational interest in it. No argument ought to be needed to substantiate the point that everything possible should be done to cultivate social intelligence, especially in those whose energies are to be taken later with technical work that throws little light upon the social problem of living together.

#### METHOD

**N**ONE of the commonly accepted methods of presentation has been used exclusively. The class meets in sections, preferably of not more than thirty students each. Very few lectures of as much as an hour are given, and then only for such purposes as to introduce some new point of view, to give information not readily accessible, or to point out trends and help students to keep their bearings. Even these purposes are more often accomplished as the natural outgrowth of problems raised during class discussion.

No single textbook is employed. The course is presented by assignment sheets which contain for each day's work a subject for the day, some topics and questions on this subject, occasional suggestions and



connecting data for the student's guidance, and a partially descriptive bibliography, grading texts according to length, difficulty, and appropriateness.

The daily subjects are arranged in combination chronological-topical sequence and do not follow exactly the table of contents of any text. Also in keeping with the synthetic emphasis the subjects aim to treat the political aspects of each succeeding century, with the economic, scientific, and other phases woven in with it. Occasionally an entire day may be spent upon sources after the background has been developed from secondary works. Again, sources may be woven into the day's work along with the secondary material they amplify. The topics and questions on each daily subject are not the conventional syllabus type which merely tabulate matters of fact in systematic order. They do of course have as objectives the guidance of the student in his reading to some of the elementary facts, and the addition of a degree of unity to the work of the class. There are three other purposes which are of even greater importance: to help students to see the bearing of the facts upon each other and upon the facts studied in previous lessons; to suggest questions of the relation of the various fields of knowledge; to provide questions so arranged that often the student is compelled to use more than one book, frequently including historical atlases and source books, in order to prepare the assignment.

Such a plan of presentation largely solves the collateral reading problem. It is no longer necessary to search for means of "checking up" on the student to determine whether he has read what has been assigned beyond the textbook. He reveals the extent of his daily reading in the class room and at examination time. The reading is less outside and apart from the course and more definitely "inside reading," intimately connected with the work of each day. He becomes acquainted with a large number of books. He knows that to neglect a single

day's work may cause him embarrassment, since the questions are subject to daily discussion and written quizzes.

The students are urged to buy some of the books and an historical atlas individually, and most of them do so; but the principal cost of necessary books is covered by a reading fee.

Certain other details may be described briefly. Notebooks are strongly advised but not required; and no special form is prescribed. The student is encouraged to make it a depository for his essential findings and to organize them into what he thinks is a unity that may serve as a substitute for a textbook, so that in a sense he is creating his own textbook. Some emphasis is placed on how to construct a logical, concise outline, for it is surprising how few students can make such an outline of a chapter in any book. Inability to outline is often associated with an inability to read, analyze, think logically, and discriminate between essentials and nonessentials; and concentrating on an outline usually helps the other difficulties. Much the same purpose is served by written abstracts of chapters from various books; and to sum up in a hundred words what an author has said in two or three thousand words may require some intellectual gymnastics not involved even in outlining.

Along with material from the usual source books some original works of writers of specific historic importance are emphasized. For example, after studying the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries from the usual secondary accounts, a list of available writings by Milton, Locke, Adam Smith, Rousseau, Voltaire, and others is provided. Perhaps one or two days will be given for a reading period without any meeting of the class, at the end of which students must either present themselves for an examination upon one or two of the titles, hand in their own views on the reading, or hand in answers to specific questions that may have been given out upon the various works.

Short reviews of special secondary works may be brought in during the year. Upon one occasion, the class was told at the beginning of the work on the eighteenth century that by the time 1815 was reached they were to hand in brief reviews of six special works dealing mainly with that period. Students were to select their books, and the reviews were to show that they had got "on speaking terms" with them. After completing this amateur survey of the literature of the revolutionary period, the class was asked to read the admirable survey made by George Peabody Gooch in his *History and Historians in the Nineteenth Century* (New York: Longmans, 1913), chapter xiii, and to hand in their own reaction to it. A considerable number sensed the weaknesses of their own work, remarking that they might have done much better, if they had read Gooch first. This discovery, together with all that it taught concerning the intricacies and possibilities of scientific, critical scholarship, the fluctuations in historical interpretation, and the evaluation of books, made the exercise particularly valuable.

At some time during the year opportunity is given for the writing of a short essay for which some source material is available in order to give practice in the technique of research and writing, as a foundation for the composition of more formidable papers in upperclass courses. Usually the paper is done as a part of the study of some fairly large topic in the course. One or more days are given without any advance assignment or meeting of the class, so that the student may concentrate upon the paper and hand it in at once rather than wait until the end of the semester. Thus the paper is associated intimately with the daily work of the course, and the use of sources adds the possibility of a certain amount of creativeness on the part of the student. A paper on Francis Bacon is an example. It not only culminated a period of study on science and thought, but rested in part upon the writings of Bacon himself. Written instructions on methods

of gathering data, on the use of footnotes, and the construction of a bibliography are given at the time the assignment is made.

Relatively few map studies as such are given because experience has indicated that a great deal of mechanical copying is done in the preparation of such studies. Students completely disassociate places from the historical facts connected with them, if they are asked merely to locate a given list of places, even though they may be studying about the places at the time. This difficulty has been partially avoided by exercises such as the following. When studying the outcome of the Thirty Years War, students may be asked to locate on an outline map each place and territory mentioned in the text at the very moment they read about it. In spite of this, many students will merely copy down a list of the places they encounter and locate them mechanically on the outline map at some later time, regarding it simply as an assigned task. It would probably be equally, if not more, effective so far as obtaining the use of atlases and the development of a vital sense of geographical relationships are concerned, if questions requiring the study of the significance of geographical relationships are given out and followed up with quizzes and discussion in the class room. Questions such as the following have proved successful: In view of the location of the territorial gains of Sweden, France, and Brandenburg, and of the territory retained in the Rhine valley by Spain, do you think the Peace of Westphalia was likely to make for the permanent tranquility of Europe or remove all of the causes for the Thirty Years War?

#### QUESTIONS OF ADMINISTRATION

THE co-operation of administration and faculty is necessary to the success of the course. It can not be a "snap" course. Many students will complain at having to prepare extensively every day. If administration and faculty yield to the ever-present temptation to cut standards to keep such students, if professors fail to see the utility of the course

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for their own major students, if departmental jealousies prevail, or if, for reasons chiefly imaginary, an ironclad rule against four- or five-hour courses exists, the course is placed in an impossible position. At least eight semester hours' credit must be given if it is not to be thin and sketchy, and if it is to accomplish its purposes without putting unreasonable pressure upon students, causing them to neglect their other courses. Co-operation in the interest of a large and common purpose is the only solution.

Another difficulty may be found with the instructor in charge of the course. If his colleagues are to trust him with the orientation problem, he must have a broad acquaintance with the whole field of the social sciences and a deep sympathy with the needs and point of view of all of them. His conception of history, and of education itself, must be more adequate than is sometimes found, and he can do much better work if he is somewhat familiar with the natural sciences and languages. It goes without saying that unbounded enthusiasm on the part of the instructor is necessary for the success of the venture, as is also a willingness to do a larger amount of work than is usually done in giving introductory courses. The problem of obtaining co-operation between two or more history instructors teaching different sections is no greater with this course than with any other type of orientation course, and in most cases it should be less.

A certain amount of departmental co-

operation in the actual teaching of the course is desirable. For example, when the class reaches the assignment on economic feudalism, or those on the commercial or industrial revolutions, a member of the economics staff might give one or two lectures carefully planned to supplement the usual preparation of the class and the work which the regular instructor has done on the same subjects. Representatives of such departments as music, biology, Greek, philosophy, and physics have given similar lectures or laboratory demonstrations at appropriate times. This gives the students the opportunity to hear some additional members of the faculty, and it adds a bit of the technical approach to some phases in which the historian may not be trained technically. At the same time, it will not interfere with the continuity of the work of the year.

Every instructor must adapt his method of presentation to his own personality and experience with his subject. The plan described may not be adaptable to all teachers. On the basis of his own experience, however, the writer is convinced that it can be used to obtain superior results by many instructors, not only in history courses but in a number of other subjects; and also, that its application to the history of civilization with the scope and emphasis described, will, if properly taught, make a distinct contribution not only to the problem of a departmental foundation course in history but also to the larger orientation problem.



# Problems in the Teaching of Modern History

ERLING M. HUNT

ONE of the conspicuous changes in the social-studies program during recent years is the heavy emphasis on modern and contemporary times. Recent American history, contemporary problems, and current events are all receiving much attention. Nor are the modern history and current happenings of the world outside the United States neglected.

Some, at least, of the provincialism and isolationism that characterized us in the years before the World War is gone. Our textbooks and courses of study, as well as our leading newspapers and magazines, testify to our realization that the United States is a world power, that our culture and institutions are closely related to those of Europe and of other parts of the world that have become Europeanized, and that our economic life, our participation or non-participation in future wars, and possibly the future of our political organization are largely dependent on developments in Europe and the East.

All this can no doubt be attributed to the World War and the events of the post-war years. The corresponding changes in our school curriculum trace back to reports of the Committee on the Social Studies of the NEA Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in 1913

and 1916.<sup>1</sup> Since 1916, a two-year, or at least a one-year, survey of European history has come to be offered rather generally. A full year, or a half-year, is accordingly devoted to modern history, aside from some incidental treatment in current events or in modern problems.<sup>2</sup> The importance of the subject, and the increasingly large number of pupils engaged in its study, make the success or failure of the offering an important matter.

SOME of the obvious problems of teaching modern history appear to need discussion, because it seems that, with the probable exception of the one-year world-history course, it is the most difficult field of history or social studies to teach, and, with the same exception, the least successfully taught. This in spite of various changes which in some ways have decreased the difficulties.

The period covered has been shortened somewhat as the date of the beginning of modern history has steadily moved nearer to our time—from 1500 to 1600, to 1700, sometimes to 1789. An increasing amount and proportion of space has been devoted to the twentieth century, with which, it is somewhat dubiously assumed, pupils are

<sup>1</sup> "Social Science in Secondary Schools: Preliminary Report of Committee of National Education Association," *History Teacher's Magazine*, May, 1913; "The Social Studies in Secondary Education . . . Report of the Committee on Social Studies . . . of the National Education Association," Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1916, No. 28.

<sup>2</sup> Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. New York: Scribner, 1935, pp. 34-38, 463.

This paper was read before a social-studies conference at Syracuse in July, 1937.

more familiar. Under the leadership of James Harvey Robinson and his followers a considerable amount of political, military, and constitutional history, which many teachers consider difficult to teach, has been eliminated in favor of increasingly full treatments of economic, social, and cultural changes.

Yet, as the story of modern Europe has been expanded into the story of the modern world, and as the treatment of modern political development has been broadened into the story of modern civilization, the narrative has become more complicated, more and more facts have been introduced, the texts have nearly doubled in length, and the difficulties inherent in teaching simultaneously the history of many movements and of many nations, the geography, personalities, and institutions of which are unfamiliar to American pupils, have certainly not been met.

ONE unfortunate characteristic of American history and social-studies teaching is our attempt to present too much. We crowd our textbooks with details on many topics and many countries. We add new chapters on the industrial revolution, on art, literature, music, and science—but condense out only a few pages of military history. We bind in new chapters to bring the story down to date—and cut out nothing. We assume that material assigned, read, recited on, and tested is taught—which it is not! No sooner do we build up some impression of an aspect of human development than we drive it out with a bombardment of new facts on some other topic. We speak much in praise of generalizations, but can not take time to develop them; we include attitudes in our long lists of objectives—but are too busy teaching facts to give attention to them; we are aware, as our stated objectives again testify, of the importance of various skills, but sacrifice them to the hectic cramming in of details in preparation for Regents or other factual examinations. Nor is all this as much ex-

aggerated as I would be glad to be convinced.

Of course modern history has no monopoly on these weaknesses, but in modern history there are some special factors that make the weaknesses, to the extent that they exist, especially serious. In ancient history, as it is usually organized, there is a single time line, and a relatively leisurely progression. There is some overlapping in time of the near-eastern civilizations, but then Greece is treated alone, and presently yields the stage to Rome. In American history, again, there is a single time line. In modern European, however, events crowd upon one another, the number of countries is multiplied, the chronology is complex and can be kept clear only with effort and with skillful teaching. The period is confusing enough even for mature students and for teachers.

IN American history most junior and senior high-school pupils have, if not knowledge, at least impressions of American place relationships, institutions, and historical personages, and they have some sense of belonging. Very rarely have they such impressions and such sense for the rest of the world. Place names are unfamiliar, distance and direction unknown, historical persons unheard of, institutions strange. And yet successful teaching, we are often reminded, depends largely on the relating of what pupils already know to what they are to learn. Unless that bridge is built with some care it is to be feared that many of our young associates in the learning process will continue to drown in a flood of slightly related facts, leaving bubbles of boners to mark the scene of the tragedy.

One more cloud before we look for the light. Adults who make curricula and who teach often assume that what is important in the world is therefore interesting to pupils. It does not follow. Much of modern history is concerned with ideas and institutions—with, for example, the eighteenth-century philosophers, and the ideas of the



French Revolution, with democracy, reform, social insurance, imperialism, dictatorship, responsible government, and international organization. These are not obviously pressing problems to adolescents. Interest can be built, but it cannot safely be assumed. Ideas—democracy, republicanism, co-operation, socialism—can be explained, and institutions understood, but not in a treatment that is hurried or condensed. Full details, ample illustrations, slow discussion are needed. Are they provided? And are they provided in increasing measure for the intellectually lame, halt, blind—shall I add dumb?—that large group who learn with difficulty from the printed page—who have recently been added to us in substantially larger numbers?

**W**E have a new philosophy of education, new psychologies of education, new theories of teaching procedure. Many of us are committed more or less to learning by doing and learning through direct experience; to teaching that capitalizes interest and individual talents, and that allows for individual differences. Effective practice is difficult in the mass education, to which we are even more thoroughly committed, and is not made easier by new testing procedures which allow but little for interest, talents, and differences, and that force us, perhaps wisely from some points of view, to try to teach a common core of factual information to all. The present spread of facts tested, however, is wide and largely uncontrolled.

Certainly we have an impressive record of efforts at improvement. Newer textbooks, however crowded, are often more readable, usually better illustrated, usually provided with better teaching aids. Word lists have become almost sacred, though they have worked few miracles. School libraries have been established, in name at least. If we have lagged in the use of films and the radio, we can perhaps point to time lines, charts, and graphs, to improvements in classroom maps, and to current-events mag-

azines some of which have virtues beyond making current events safe for schools. Surely these must be some gains from our experimentation with units, problems, projects, overviews, socialized recitations, laboratories, movable furniture, panels, supervised study, workbooks, trips, the Morrison plan, standardized tests, new courses of study, correlation, unification, coordination, and integration!

How much of this activity bears on problems of teaching modern history? First, it is more than possible that there is promise in the tendency to treat great bodies of information in larger topics or units. Much of modern history can be organized around the study of the industrial revolution; the growth of nationalism; the spread of democracy, with attention to the recent challenging of democracy in Russia, Italy, Germany, and elsewhere; the rise of the middle class and the common man; and the development of internationalism. There is already a tendency to organize around these great movements, subordinating national history to them.

**S**EVERAL courses of study developed during recent years for cities and states attempt to organize those aspects of the experience of man which are to be presented in the schools around five great themes, which dominate social-studies teaching from the beginning of the elementary school through the junior, and sometimes through the senior, high school. The phrasing varies slightly; that of the Fort Worth course of study<sup>3</sup> will be followed here. The five themes are:

- (1) Interdependence.
- (2) Increasing control over nature.
- (3) Adaptation: "the necessity of man's adaptation to meet the requirements of subsistence and the pressure of competing

<sup>3</sup> "Social Studies, a Tentative Course of Studies," Fort Worth, Texas, Board of Education, *Curriculum Bulletin*, nos. 101-109 (kindergarten to grade 8), no. 111 (world history), 112 (modern history, grade 9). Fort Worth, 1933.

nations [which are] implicit in change."

(4) Population: "the tendency of man to move from place to place in search of better ways of living."

(5) Democracy: "as a way of living, thinking and governing"—"the social ideal that intends a full realization of individual potentialities, participation in determining decisions, or, in brief, an abundant life for ALL."

These five themes are interesting and suggestive, though neither the themes nor their development through a long succession of units reveal any substantial scholarship. It will be noted that, save for the rather fervidly stated theme of democracy, they are all economic, that they accept the economic interpretation of history, that they ignore religion and the arts, and that they are guilty of rather extreme oversimplification. Yet they illustrate the tendency to organize around great movements or interpretive themes. Some further gestures in the same direction have the advantage of more substantial scholarship, and of dealing with a relatively restricted period.

"OF all the things said and done in the last four hundred years," writes Carl Becker in a foreword to his text in *Modern History*,<sup>4</sup> "only a few of the most important could possibly be mentioned in a single volume like this one. If I had tried to say something about all the events, in all the countries, the book would have been no more than a bare list of names and dates." Accordingly he has tried to select, and to explain the world of today. The task of interpreting history is not one in which amateurs are very likely to be helpful, but when mature scholars undertake the difficult task of selection and generalization teachers and curriculum makers can afford to be attentive. Professor Becker's subtitle summarizes modern history as "the rise of a Democratic, Scientific, and Industrialized Civilization." Presently he becomes slightly

more explicit: "There are perhaps five things which make modern civilization different from the civilization of earlier times. To these five things we may give five names: (1) scientific knowledge; (2) economic interdependence; (3) human feeling and democratic ideas; (4) nationalism; (5) internationalism" (p. 2).

The five large themes advanced by Becker are accordingly: Scientific knowledge and how it has changed the conditions of life; Economic interdependence: how the countries of the world are becoming more dependent on each other; Humane feeling and democratic ideas; Nationalism: how the world is divided into independent nation-states; Internationalism: how the nations are trying to work together (pp. 2-12).

Professor Becker's twenty-three chapter titles do not expand and illuminate his themes as one might expect, and most of his text is concerned with political history, but his account of modern times does support the themes, as, in fact, do all textbooks in modern history.

AFTER a two-hundred page chronological introduction Harrison C. Thomas and William A. Hamm<sup>5</sup> adopt a topical organization of nineteenth- and twentieth-century development. Their five topics: economic and social forces; nationalism; the growth of democracy; imperialism; and international relations correspond closely to those of Professor Becker.

Their chapter titles elaborate and illustrate the themes, though most of the content is again political, and the one hundred and fifty pages devoted to economic and social forces are hurried and not altogether satisfactory.

It is perhaps worth noting that Charles A. Beard's interpretive list of topics in modern and contemporary history, in *The Nature of the Social Sciences*,<sup>6</sup> is not in con-

<sup>4</sup> *Modern Europe*. New York: Holt, 1934.

<sup>5</sup> Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. New York: Scribner, 1934, pp. 218 ff.

<sup>6</sup> New York: Silver Burdett, 1935.

flit with these textbook topics, though his twenty-three headings are more specific than their five. He notes the emergence of a world community, the transformation of Asia and Africa, the growth of the middle class, the consolidation of the working classes, and the appearance of socialism, all of which fit neatly into the larger themes.

**I**f it is possible, as it seems to be, to group the details of modern history about a few such dominant movements, using our multiplicity of facts not as ends in themselves but as means to the understanding of major developments in modern times, then perhaps our program can be brought within the possibility of mastery by our pupils, and perhaps we can both give some meaning to the details with which we work and make some real contribution to the avowed purpose of social-studies teaching—the achievement of some understanding of the world in which we live. An alternative pattern, it should be noted, has recently been proposed by L. C. Marshall and R. M. Goetz in their *Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies: a Social Process Approach*.<sup>7</sup> Whether it is a better pattern than that of the interpretive themes will not be considered here, but it would seem that any pattern is an improvement on our usual encyclopaedic survey of events, organized mostly by nations.

Of course a topical organization is no automatic cure for all that ails us, but at least it does allow for a sharp cutting of the material presented when the ability and background of pupils demand that cutting. It does not interfere with full treatment, even by nations, when the ability and background of pupils permit.

**W**HAT of the difficulties with unfamiliar names, strange institutions, and with ideas that call for considerable experience and maturity? If the story of modern development is important, as it is,

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, 1936, pp. 7-22.

much of the answer would seem to lie in slow and thorough teaching. Part of it lies, as Henry Johnson pointed out long since, in the use of a wealth of narrative and descriptive history, and in the liberal use of biography.<sup>8</sup> Certainly there is no longer anything original in the suggestion that democracy be taught in schools through a study of democrats, imperialism through imperialists, dictatorship through dictators. It should be observed, however, that special difficulties arise in the application of that elementary principle in the field of modern history, for it happens that fewer reading materials suitable to secondary-school use exist for that field than for any other that we teach. We have had satisfactory volumes in ancient history for many years, and recently many excellent publications have appeared in the medieval period. It is possible, if the funds are available, to build a good secondary-school library in American history. But where are there brief and readable biographies of modern leaders? James Matthew Thompson<sup>9</sup> and Louis Madelin<sup>10</sup> for the French Revolution, William P. Cresson<sup>11</sup> for a few nineteenth-century diplomats, and B. H. Liddell Hart<sup>12</sup> for a few World War generals nearly exhaust the list. Georges Maurice Paléologue's *Cavour*<sup>13</sup> and Munroe Smith's *Bismarck*<sup>14</sup> are usable. Charles Downer Hazen's *Europe Since 1815*,<sup>15</sup> with all its limitations, is a very readable account of the political history involved in nationalism and is useful in pro-

<sup>8</sup> *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan, 1915, pp. 161-177, 202-224.

<sup>9</sup> *Leaders of the French Revolution*. Oxford: B. Blackwell, 1929.

<sup>10</sup> *Figures of the Revolution*, trans. by Richard Curtis. New York: Macauley, 1929.

<sup>11</sup> *Diplomatic Portraits: Europe and the Monroe Doctrine One Hundred Years Ago*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1923.

<sup>12</sup> *Reputations Ten Years After*. Boston: Little Brown, 1928.

<sup>13</sup> Trans. by Ian F. D. Morrow and Muriel M. Morrow. New York: Harper, 1927.

<sup>14</sup> Third ed. rev. and enl. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1923.

<sup>15</sup> New York: Holt, 1923.



viding descriptive material for imperialism and democracy. There is a little, but far from enough, narrative and descriptive treatment of the industrial revolution,<sup>16</sup> but, with all due allowance for the few volumes that have been cited and for some others that might have been, it seems clear that an extensive program of publications for immature pupils with no familiarity with the history of the modern world is much needed. Even the existing source books and volumes of readings are too mature, and in general unsuited to school use.

AVAILABLE textbooks and readings are still predominantly political. Political development is important and certainly should not be eliminated, but the textbook accounts of the industrial revolution are not in accord with recent scholarship, the treatments of science, literature, and art tend to be bleak catalogs of names and works, and daily life is still entirely neglected. Socialism, communism, and co-operatives, social insurance and labor problems, rarely receive any treatment. American history courses have been including attention to contemporary problems and their backgrounds; European history courses have done little in this direction—and cannot do more until much existing content is eliminated.

<sup>16</sup> For examples, Witt Bowden, *Industrial Revolution*. Landmarks of History Series. New York: Crofts, 1928; Frederick Charles Dietz, *Industrial Revolution*. Berkshire Studies in European History Series. New York: Holt, 1927.

If modern history can be made interesting so much the better; the learning will be more effective. I hope there is significance, however, in Professor Leonard's recent statement that the new Virginia curriculum is based not on children's interests but on what they need to know.<sup>17</sup> If what pupils already know can be used, it surely ought to be, but in European development that is little, and the possibilities of using direct experience to expand that little are slight. We can make some effective use of parallels with American development to the extent that the latter is understood. We can experiment with new teaching procedures and devices, new organizations, new integrations, probably with profit. We can take real satisfaction in the improvement in textbooks, in the better professional training of teachers both in educational theory and in command of history and fields related to it. But the first essential seems to be, prosaically enough, determining the essentials, making them few enough, at one extreme, to permit pupils who learn slowly really to master them and, at the other extreme, providing a content mature enough to stimulate those of some real intellectual power. Then we need unrelenting insistence on some real achievement. These appear to call for more professional leadership than has so far been vouchsafed in the teaching of our modern world.

<sup>17</sup> J. Paul Leonard, "Social Studies in the Virginia Curriculum," *Social Education*, May, 1937.

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# Education for Civic Leadership

LLOYD M. SHORT

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THE elementary and secondary schools continue to be the most important agencies of civic instruction for most of our population, although education for the technical, professional, and higher administrative positions in government service is of course primarily the responsibility of the colleges and universities, as is also some share of the responsibility for all civic education. The particular task of the elementary and secondary schools is to provide the more general type of education required to equip men and women for the duties of enlightened citizenship, for such governmental positions as membership in legislative bodies and on policy determining boards, for positions of leadership in civic organizations, and for active participation in political parties. The opportunities for civic leadership are increasing in number and variety, as are the technical and administrative positions in government. A multitude of organizations are interesting themselves in the field of public affairs, and they need trained and intelligent

However much our stated objectives stress citizenship values, the actual results of social-studies teaching continue to fall far short of our goal. The director of the public administration training center of the University of Minnesota presents some practical and constructive suggestions, continuing a series of articles on education for participation in public affairs.

leaders. Furthermore, they need alert, enlightened members, whose education in elementary and secondary schools has been adequate for making good use of the opportunities for training in public affairs which these organizations, and other agencies, like the press, the political party, and the cinema, offer.

FOR any consideration of the nature and objectives of civic education, we need to recognize the importance of a consciously planned program. We have had much preaching about the need for "good citizens," but until relatively recent times we seem to have had only vague notions as to the kind of training necessary to produce such citizens. There is substantial evidence that American educators are today well aware of this need for a planned program of citizenship training. The report and supplementary studies of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association have done much to direct recent thought and action in this field of education.

The writer is too conscious of his own lack of information and experience in the field of elementary and secondary education—a condition in which most university teachers find themselves—to attempt to say what a program of training for civic leadership and civic appreciation requires in the way of curriculum or methodology. Instead it is his purpose to suggest some of the important goals to be achieved through such a program, having in mind that our objectives will control to a substantial degree



the materials and the methods of instruction which we employ. Most of these goals are essentially the cultivation of attitudes toward government, its problems, and their solution, which the writer believes to be the necessary equipment of all civic leaders and understanding citizens.

#### RÔLE OF GOVERNMENT

FIRST, we should seek an understanding of the rôle of government in modern civilization. It is a far cry from the political philosophy that "government is best which governs least" to the political opportunism of the twentieth century which looks to government for a solution of our economic and social ills. Yet, while there are many who still give lip service to the theory of governmental non-interference, there are few indeed who do not in actual practice add their bit to the increasing demands for public service, when it appears to be in their own interest to do so. Organized groups which are constant pleaders for tax relief and against governmental control are often among the first to apply for governmental aid and protection.

As a matter of fact this widespread departure from the laissez faire or individualistic doctrine is in accord with the facts of modern life. The industrial revolution, as evidenced in the development of new and more rapid means of transportation and communication, the organization of business and industry upon a national and even an international scale, the congregation of large numbers of people in urban centers, and the development of more definite lines of social and economic class interest, has given rise to problems of such magnitude and complexity that the individual and the group, acting alone, are powerless to cope with them. The state has become an instrument of social co-operation as well as an agency of social control. Business looks to government for tariff protection, for the development of standards, and for the promotion of foreign trade; shippers ask for public regulation of transportation systems

to insure reasonable rates; agriculture seeks from government that volume of credit at low rates of interest which it can not get through private channels; labor asks for protection against low wages and unhealthful working conditions and for adequate compensation to the injured; and we all depend upon government for police and fire protection, for the education of our children, for the safety of the food we eat and the water and milk we drink, not to mention a hundred and one other services which we have come to expect more or less as a matter of course.

Not only is it essential that the citizen come to understand this new rôle of government, but it is imperative also that he appreciate the value of public service not only to society as a whole but also to individuals. There are many, impelled perhaps by a special interest in balanced budgets and reduced taxes, who would have us assume that governmental activities are to a large extent non-essential and consequently involve an unnecessary burden on the taxpayer. Contrary to this not uncommon view, it seems to this writer an obviously wise economy to support public health activities by taxation and avoid paying the doctor or the undertaker as a consequence of a serious epidemic; to contribute through public channels for the construction and maintenance of streets and highways in order that we may get the maximum return from our investment in automotive transportation; to assist in the maintenance of public institutions for the care and treatment of the mentally sick, rather than to bear the cost of private hospitalization; to support public schools rather than to employ private tutors for our children. Those activities of government which appear to be unimportant and unnecessary to some are deemed essential by others. We need some studies to reveal the actual worth of public services to the individual. Admittedly the task of measurement will be difficult, but some preliminary investigations indicate that it is not impossible.

## CIVIL SERVICE

A SECOND, but none the less important, objective of a program of civic education is to get the people of this and succeeding generations to recognize the need for trained personnel in public service, recruited on the basis of merit and encouraged by opportunities for an honorable, useful, and substantially rewarded career. Thoughtful persons in this and other lands realize that perhaps the supreme test of democracy—one which it is facing this very moment—is its ability to reconcile popular control with efficiency in administration. There are in America today individuals and groups who, fearful of a decline in the loyalty with which our citizenry supports the democratic system, would exact an oath of allegiance from those who teach. Events in the world today give rise to some justifiable doubts about the ability of democracy to survive. Most of us would agree that the great majority of the people of our nation have faith in our system of government, but having faith is not enough. Democracy is not to be preserved by protestations of loyalty or by silencing its critics. The same pressure of circumstance which has led to the striking expansion of governmental activities previously noted demands that governments enlist the services of their most able and thoroughly trained citizens.

Much of the prevalent discontent with the results achieved from governmental expenditures, instead of exhausting itself in a never ending and for the most part fruitless demand for reduced taxes, while paradoxically expecting increased public services, should be directed toward the elimination of those personnel policies in government that obviously militate against efficient administration. Educators must seek to counteract the popular misconception of "government as being after all a very simple thing." To their aid in this regard, the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel of the Social Science Research Council has contributed most effectively.

Pending the full acceptance of the career

system in the public service however, it is desirable to eliminate as far as possible the prevalent misconception about government service that all or most public employees are inefficient grafters, "leeches on the public pocketbook," "hogs at the public trough." It is the almost universal testimony of those who have come to know the rank and file of our public servants intimately that they deserve much more commendation and appreciation than it is the custom of Americans to bestow upon them. If we sincerely desire to obtain maximum service from our investment in government, we shall do well to remember that it is human nature to respond to recognition when it is deserved. Lack of public esteem is a serious deterrent to the entrance of capable young persons into the public service, whether by the spoils route or the merit system, and it certainly is costly in terms of the response from those already occupying positions in that service. Realism in the study of government should recognize the presence of both the inefficient and the efficient, but, if emphasis is to be placed on either, the latter seems more likely to produce desired results.

## CHANGE AND ADJUSTMENT

A SIGNIFICANT goal of civic training should be the recognition of governmental institutions and practices as the product of human experience and experimentation rather than of rationalization. Too long in America have we stressed traditionalism when confronted with the realities of efficient government. For many, it is a sufficient answer to say that "it is unconstitutional."

A certain degree of conservatism when confronted with proposals for governmental change undoubtedly is justifiable and perhaps beneficial, but, in a world changing as rapidly as is ours, we must be willing to experiment in this as in other fields of human activity. To do otherwise is merely to encourage the development of extralegal practices. We respond with remarkable

speed and substantial unanimity to every new cure and gadget, but we hesitate even to admit changes that have already taken place in government in spite of constitutional limitations. We need civic leaders who recognize that governments, like automobiles, grow out of date and who are willing to suggest that new political institutions, dubbed as "radical" by the constitutionalists, give promise of usefulness to modern problems. The city manager plan of municipal government, still opposed in some quarters as a system of municipal dictatorship, has proved itself in some five hundred American cities, although it is in direct contrast to the traditional American system of separation of powers. Our refusal to face the unreality of the federal system, as it was originally conceived in the United States, has forced the federal government to resort to subsidies and other indirect procedures whereby tasks transcending state boundaries, yet constitutionally outside the scope of federal power, may be at least partially performed. We contend for "state rights," when governmental problems require federal and state co-operation. The necessity for legislative and executive co-operation in the determination of public policies has led to extensive delegation of power by the former to the latter, though we still insist on maintaining the legal fiction of complete separation.

#### PUBLIC OPINION AND PROPAGANDA

EDUCATION of future citizens and participants in public affairs may well include as one of its objectives an understanding of the panoply of forces at work molding public opinion. Such an understanding is especially needed in a democracy where group, sectional, and party interests constantly are competing for the attention and the support of the often unsuspecting "man on the street." Not only is it important that the "new techniques of political power" be understood by the voter in order that he may build up resistance to them when they are being used to misinform or to inform

only partially, but it is likewise desirable that those who aspire to positions of civic leadership understand how they may be used to overcome political indifference and inertia. Many a civic reform movement undertaken with the best of intentions has failed miserably, because its leaders were ignorant of modern methods of arousing public interest and winning public support. Other civic crusades, achieving temporary success, have ultimately lost out for want of continuous effort and thoughtfully conceived methods of reporting results.

#### CHARACTER TRAINING

FINALLY, such a list of objectives to be sought in a program of civic education certainly should include a recognition of the need for men and women of integrity and high moral purpose in the field of public affairs. To a substantial degree we have permitted our religious differences and our traditional separation of church and state to excuse the schools from responsibility for character education. Happily there are evidences of a changing attitude in this regard. The problem of providing such instruction in the public schools admittedly is a difficult one. Perhaps it should be a by-product of instruction in other fields. Yet certainly government in our day, with its multitude of activities permeating the entire life of the individual and of society, needs that public confidence which is born of a belief that those in places of leadership and responsibility can be trusted. Nothing contributes more devastatingly to "civic defeatism" than recurring evidence of betrayal of public confidence on the part of governmental officers and employees or of insincerity and hypocrisy on the part of those who presume to lead their communities in efforts toward civic betterment. There is no technical or scientific substitute for character and sense of social responsibility. There is no aspect of civic education in which the schools could render greater service than in the development of such a sense of responsibility.



## THE TEACHER'S PART

FOR achieving results in education for civic leadership the teacher holds the key to success. Curricula, courses of study, libraries, extracurricular activities—all of these have their place and require continuous study; but none can insure success without competent teachers. The task of the teacher in this field of education is made much more difficult, because in the study of public questions it is necessary to enter the field of opinion and controversy. Political ideas rank next to religious beliefs in the tenacity with which they are held. The teacher, recognizing that government and the conduct of human affairs is not an exact science, must carefully avoid a dogmatic and authoritarian attitude. Certainly pupils should be aided and encouraged to acquire a sympathetic understanding and appreciation of prevailing political institutions and practices and their supporting ideology. It is equally the duty of the teacher, however, to encourage an attitude of inquiry that does not hesitate to question the present validity of such institutions and practices. The pupil has the right, and frequently asserts it, to expect the teacher to assist him in reaching conclusions. No amount of reading and study can substitute for the guidance of a competent instructor in assisting the learner to weigh the evidence

and to discover, so nearly as available information and his maturity permit, the truth.

In aiding his pupils to reach such objectives as have been named, the teacher will occasionally have to meet the challenge of traditionalists and those who have a special interest in preserving the status quo. The merit system is heresy to the ardent exponent of party control. International cooperation is a radical departure, when viewed by the isolationist. Government regulation in protecting the consumer is unwarranted paternalism in the eyes of the exponent of *caveat emptor*. The teacher may be accused of using the classroom for purposes of propaganda, which makes it all the more important to avoid the tactics of the special pleader. He must show a much greater interest in the methods by which his pupils reach their conclusions than in what those conclusions are. In fact he may well believe, for the immature mind, in the avoidance of definite decisions about many governmental problems.

In all of this, the teacher will at times need the support of sympathetic and courageous administrators, who in turn have the right to expect from the teacher special competence in such measure as it is paid for, a due regard for the opinions of others, and a recognition of the immaturity of his pupils.



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# Using Our Academic Freedom

JOE A. APPLE

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**B**EFORE beginning a discussion of what we ought or ought not to stress in the social studies, I should like to explain what position seems to me desirable for social-studies teachers to assume in relation to the rest of society. Practically every American teacher is well aware of the place that controversial issues hold in professional discussions. There is no need to repeat here the opinion of most social-studies teachers concerning the right and necessity of presenting any and all sides of such issues. As a group we thoroughly subscribe to the theory of complete academic freedom. The question I want to raise is whether we are aware of the implications underlying our stand, since we are but one of the groups making up American society. When William Randolph Hearst or Thomas L. Blanton and his "red rider," for example, are mentioned we usually experience a well developed shudder of moral indignation. "How could decent people hold such views?" we say. In spite of our claims to rational thinking, we social-studies teachers,

Is academic freedom a vested interest of the teaching profession? Do teachers defend it for that reason? What course ought they to adopt so that academic freedom may profit society and not merely themselves? These are the questions discussed with informality and vigor by a teacher in the Ball State Teachers College at Muncie, Indiana.

much like the rest of humanity, automatically divide the human species into two distinct classes—the whites and the blacks. Into the white class we social-studies teachers ever so naturally go; but into the black class we relegate immediately all those individuals, and there are many, who are opposed to academic freedom or who are opposed to our "highly enlightened" viewpoints. "Either they are unable to think straight or else their very souls are black," we declare. We may be wrong. Let us examine the premises of our position further. We say that they are blacks and that they are fighting for their unfairly acquired vested interests. We think that they wish to throttle us social-studies teachers, because they are afraid the truth that we so certainly represent will be detrimental to their vested interests. Perhaps that is true. Yet let me say this: When we as teachers fight for and expect academic freedom for ourselves, we really and definitely are fighting for vested interests just as certainly and surely as those whom we are condemning as unadulterated blacks.

**A**CADEMIC freedom is a vested interest of teachers. Moreover, whenever any one group, like teachers, in our social structure acquires some special vested interest, that group must expect to be fought by other groups having or desiring some special interests. Do not misunderstand this position. I am not suggesting that our blacks are imaginary. I am not trying to defend those whom we might so classify. Also I am not suggesting that we cease fighting for

our vested interests, that is for academic freedom. I personally think there are vested interests and vested interests, but on the whole it is not a conflict between our good and someone else's bad. Most times it is a conflict between two philosophies honestly arrived at by sincere honest people, two philosophies of life—the philosophy of change against the philosophy of stability—both supported by legions of honest Americans. As for the political position of teachers and vested interests, I certainly am unwilling to undertake to say whether teachers' organizations should take an active part in politics or not, or whether they should become affiliated with some other groups like the American Federation of Labor or not. But one thing is certain. If teachers do become politically powerful, no power on earth can keep them from becoming designated as vested interests. Liberty throughout history has always been opposed to the group in power. The same principle we teachers fight for now will be used against us in the future. The question is whether we should invite that opposition.

**P**ERHAPS, as I have intimated, most of our social issues and problems arise from a conflict of philosophies. Many of those opposed to academic freedom have values they think more important than those we hold dear. There are social values in stability as certainly as there are social values in change. How much of each do we need and how much do we want? That question can not be answered. We are yet too ignorant in the social-science fields. In all frankness and sincerity I must say to social-studies teachers that the real restrictions to our academic freedom come from within ourselves. Ignorance is our greatest restrictor. Our liberty is limited by what we know. We can not even want something we do not know. Knowledge is absolutely necessary before people can make choices that mean anything, and choices are the things that we and our pupils must learn to make, as far as social questions are concerned. This

principle of the restrictions of ignorance is something to think about. If we were fully aware of its significance, perhaps we would be a little more tolerant in our black and white categories.

Let me illustrate how closely this question of ignorance and knowledge is tied up with the issue of freedom in the modern world. Businessmen in general are now clamoring for more freedom in their business, where they are experts; yet they are opposed to freedom in the field of social ideas, where they are not so competent. On the other hand, social-studies teachers in general are opposed to a governmental laissez faire policy for business, where we social-studies teachers are relatively incompetent; yet we demand absolute freedom in social ideas, where we think we are competent.

#### MINORITY RIGHTS

**H**AVING suggested the position that I believe social-studies teachers must assume, let us proceed to what we should and should not stress in the social studies. To say what I really want to say calls for two suppositions. First, the supposition that social-studies teachers as a group know more than they have time to teach; second, the supposition that there are more valuable materials than can ever be taught. I am using the term "teach" in its broadest sense. Granting these suppositions and the suggested position that teachers ought to assume, what general criteria shall we adopt to guide our selection of ideas to be stressed and those not to be stressed? Enduring ideas may be said to go through two general phases in their evolution and crystallization, first a social phase and then eventually a political phase. In general, politicians and political bodies take action on new ideas only after the new ideas have won the support of a large enough number of persons to make it expedient for the politicians to recognize them. By the time an idea has reached the political stage the necessary educational foundation has already been

laid in most cases. The great opportunity and need for real education is in the social phase of an idea. Thus the ideas for social-studies teachers are ideas still in their social phases. Last year would have been the year to discuss "crop insurance" in those social-studies classes interested in the economic problems of agriculture. City planning is too late for some of our communities. Large scale economic planning is fast changing its phase. It can still be discussed profitably in most of our communities. I speak here of economic planning rather than of a planned economy. There is all the difference in the world.

TO accept the results of this kind of reasoning is certainly not the safest procedure for a social-studies teacher; but I can hardly see how it can fail to be the most important, unless we subscribe completely to the desirability of a static civilization. This is not necessarily admitting that change is all important, either. It is saying, however, that one of the essential duties of any social-studies curriculum is to afford all opportunities possible to begin weighing the new in the place where it can be weighed critically, dispassionately, and scientifically rather than leaving it to be decided emotionally on the street corner several years later. The old things will not and can not be neglected under such a procedure. They will be acquired, possibly incidentally, but they will be acquired, since the new can not be discussed in a vacuum.

Let us apply this "new idea" point in terms of our philosophy of academic freedom. If we teachers really believe in such a philosophy, then we will fight for freedom of expression for any and all new ideas or groups: for freedom of expression for Father Coughlin and his Union for Social Justice, for freedom of expression for Earl Browder and his Communist Party, and for freedom of expression for William Randolph Hearst and his "red scare." This is really nothing more than an expression of one of the fundamental concepts of our democracy, the pro-

tection of minorities as well as the expression of majorities. Minorities and their ideas should be dealt with most and fought for most by social-studies teachers. That is the way, I believe, to guarantee that the American way of life be kept moving and also the way to eliminate the possibility of a "decline of the West." (Incidentally teachers who have not read *The Decline of the West* by Oswald Spengler, New York: Knopf, 1932, would find the book rewarding. There is much food for thought in it even though you should disagree with its conclusions.)

However, if we social-studies teachers choose to follow this "new idea" philosophy, we must get ready for hard knocks, for dislike, for opposition, and for punishment even. If we discuss these new things, we can not expect to be popular with society, whenever it finds us out. We are upsetting society too much. Perhaps some of us will be popular with posterity; but at present we shall become society's intellectual enemy number one. Also remember that if we do these things, it is our responsibility. It is also a public responsibility. It can not be educational for people, or teachers, to discuss problems for which they have no responsibility.

What ideas to stress? I have given you criteria for selection. Moreover, while you teach these new ideas be sure to stress their differences. This will help to promote imagination, and imagination is very desirable for your students. What ideas to leave out? Probably none, unless it should be religion. I can hardly justify such an omission logically, but I do think that religion should perhaps be kept out of the classroom at present, because people will not yet subject their religion to reason.

#### OUR OWN POSITION

NOW what should we do, specifically, to make sure we make no mistakes in our presentation of new ideas? Of course, the usual suggestion is to do a better average quality of teaching, but how? Let us



try to be masters of the changing scene. We know that economic production and scientific invention have outsped our social inventions. Then let us try to be masters of social inventions and promote social invention. There can hardly be a valid basis for the often voiced idea that no new social inventions are needed in our land. So again, study these new ideas, these new social inventions, help invent others, and teach them. Do not advocate them, but teach them. If they are worthy, they will eventually advocate themselves. We can then claim to have helped to decrease the social lag in a democratic way—the way of gradualism. I said a moment ago that ignorance was our strongest enemy of academic freedom. Then let us extend our acquaintance with the large social and economic problems, especially the economic problems. That means that every one of us as social-studies teachers should be reading, studying, experiencing, and traveling all the time. Incidentally everyone of us should be taking at least four professional magazines. I mentioned especially economic problems. Probably there is no other educational field in which social-studies teachers are so weak as in the field of economics. Economic problems must be discussed in the classroom; but let us be sure we know something about economics and economic problems before we begin to help others form any definite opinions about them.

If we social-studies teachers passionately desire to achieve real academic freedom, then we should appoint ourselves every one a committee of one to acquire all the knowledge possible by night, day, summer, winter, about these large economic problems and then have the courage to discuss them in class, even if doctors' sons or bricklayers' sons are in that class or on the school board. Too, every one of us might very profitably read and think more concerning the philosophy and the implications of a doctrine of scarcity and a doctrine of plenty. Closely akin to these is the philosophy of the profit motive.

**D**IRECTING our thought for a moment to some pertinent and specific economic problems, we realize that the teacher's own economic status lies in this field of economic problems. It should therefore be appropriate here. All of us are saying all the time we can not afford to educate ourselves further. When I suggested it awhile ago you probably said, "What? On my salary? I can not afford it. Now, if I were only a doctor or a lawyer!" Here we are approaching a major economic problem, that of occupational distribution and income. Some economists are sure that teachers' incomes could be raised nearly to those of doctors or lawyers, if the same principles followed by the medical profession could be applied to education. Let us see what the medical profession has done. I am using the medical profession merely as an example of many groups. I could have selected bricklayers just as easily, or lawyers perhaps even more profitably. During the last fifteen years medical schools controlled by the medical profession have been reduced more than one half. Not only has this been done, but the enrollment and output from these schools has been limited to such an extent that there are roughly only 150,000 doctors in our country at present. How many doctors are actually needed in the United States? We do not know, but estimates run as high as 3,000,000. We do know that every one of these 150,000 doctors would be kept busy, if they had nothing more to do than to see that one complete physical examination is given to every American once a year. There would be no medical men left to man hospitals, make medical calls, perform operations, or conduct medical research. Yet what does the medical man tell your high-school senior? Stay out of medicine! The profession is woefully overcrowded! All the trades are overcrowded. There is already too much competition in these fields.

They are, however, overcrowded only according to the doctrine of economic scarcity. They certainly are not when some reputable statisticians and economists can



say that the actual average medical income, for example, in the United States, is really about \$11,000 instead of the \$3,000 to \$5,000 usually mentioned, and when practically two-thirds of our American commonwealth is forced to do without needed medical services. I do not wish to be disrespectful here to the individual medical man, or for that matter to the medical profession. It is merely a good example of what groups can do and think they have to do to protect their economic interests. I say that teachers might do a similar thing, might limit teacher-training institutions and their output with some success. They might increase their economic scarcity, but it probably would not be socially wise. The principle on which such a course is based seems to me to be fundamentally unsound. Yet I have read few lines in newspapers or elsewhere discussing the implications underlying policies practised by some of our most respected professional groups to improve their economic status. If a man-made limitation of wheat or corn or hogs in America is condemnable then a man-made limitation of medical services in America seems to be equally condemnable.

LET us look at another side of the economic picture, while some of these professions are following the doctrine of economic scarcity to great group advantage. When we think of the agricultural colleges in the United States, we immediately decide that they are wonderful institutions for the American farmer. From one point of view, I am not so sure. We grant that each educated farmer has really learned to produce more by scientific means and that his individual income, as compared with other farmers, has increased because of his training. We grant also that for society as a whole the increased production has been beneficial; but, for agriculture as a class interest, each bit of this education resulting in increased production has been detrimental. Agricultural education has increased surpluses that the farmer was already having

a hard time to sell profitably. Here further education has been unprofitable, economically speaking, for that group as a group. Suppose every farmer were educated and by scientific means produced twice as much as he does now. Would education be beneficial to farmers in such a case, when the surpluses most assuredly would cut prices in half? Do not misinterpret the argument. These agricultural surpluses are needed just as medical services are needed. Society has benefited, and farmer education should continue. However, here is a good example of an economy of plenty trying to exist right by the side of an economy of scarcity. This is not an agricultural appeal. Here is a real problem for teachers and students. I do not know what should be done. Theoretically an economics of plenty seems to offer more opportunities. I do know that every social-studies teacher should be familiar with the implications underlying the positions being assumed by every economic group in American life and should make them known to his pupils. It sounds neither logical nor consistent for one economic group to follow or be forced to follow one economic theory, while other groups follow another theory.

ANOTHER phase of general economics, which every social-studies teacher should try to understand in its wider aspects, is that of economic waste. Much of that problem is going to be attacked during the coming generation. Our children need to become acquainted with it. It is interesting to learn that much of certain economic goods is being wasted right at this moment. The wheels of the American daily press are said to roll out more newsprint than could be read if every person in the United States read all the time. Some scientists tell us that more than 100,000,000 of us 128,000,000 Americans eat too much. Considerations like these may help determine what should be taught and known. While I am on the subject of the need of more economic understanding I might say

that there is a different and extremely helpful book for any teacher, a simple yet dynamic little book written by the economist Harold F. Clark, published (1936) by Macmillan, *An Introduction to Economic Problems for Students and Teachers*.

That leads us back to the point of economic planning. Our social-studies year will not be complete, if we do not make some time available for a unit or a discussion of some kind of planning. We could begin by making surveys and plans for our own community for the next twenty years. Plan how your community could eliminate coal soot. The women of Salt Lake City began such a plan. They are now using denatured coal to free that city from its winter grime. What would our cities look like without this winter coal dust? Planning is a social invention that must come. Again, this is not an argument favoring a "planned economic order," which suggests an ultimate already picked out and decided upon. A planning economy would decide our destination as we go, determined by a planning people educated in planning. The task of teachers is to educate a planning people.

#### CONTROVERSY AND FACT

**A**NOTHER point I would like to mention concerns the use of the radio and the movie. It matters not how you get your students to listen to contrasting radio programs like last year's University of Chicago Round Table forum or the axe-grinding program, the Crusaders, for example. You would like the Round Table yourself; and such material offers challenges for discussion in the classroom. The same is true of some moving pictures; but we usually dismiss these pictures and approaches with a few words.

**A**S one last point I would say that there is much evidence of a growing need for a different emphasis on the part authori-

tativeness should play in our social-studies teaching. In our eagerness, as teachers, to develop youngsters who think independently, who think critically, who are skeptical of statements not supported by definite proof, in our effort to develop and promote freedom of thought, we have really developed youngsters who are skeptical of everything, even of the greatest authorities. This is a typical attitude toward the expert. "How does he know, since he does not give any proof?" "I do not believe it." "He is biased." "He has an axe to grind." "I think differently, and I have as much of a right to my opinion as he has to his." Now some of this is all right, some is needed. But! Analyze this example. A real-estate board made a survey of the number of apartments in a certain city. The figures were read to a social-studies class as simple facts. "I do not believe those figures," exclaimed one student. "I think differently." At times it seems that facts have ceased to be facts with youngsters. Yet facts are the fundamental basic material of all thinking. Perhaps part of this trouble lies in the old frontier trait of disrespect of authority. Perhaps part of the problem has its roots in the larger problem of reason versus emotion. We seem not to have made much progress in conquering emotion. Maybe we should not. Maybe we can not. Highly educated individuals are continually reasoning one thing and doing the opposite. Moreover, much modern psychology with its philosophy and emphasis on freedom from inhibition, with its emphasis on the danger of suppressing urges, certainly lends little aid to us as social-studies teachers trying to train students to place reason above emotion. Neither does much of modern progressive education with its enormous stress on individual interests and freedom.

Indeed we have enormous work to do. We have a great opportunity to do something. The road is uncertain, and we must find it.

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# Social-Studies Skills in Elementary Schools

EDNA MCGUIRE

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**E**LEMENTARY social studies may and often do provide integrating centers for much child learning. In any integrated program a wide variety of activities has very rightfully found a place. Probably no other group of educators has embraced the philosophy of the activists more generally or more enthusiastically than have the social-studies teachers. It seems self-evident that the utilization of an activity program in the teaching of social studies provides opportunity for the development of many valuable skills. Yet in the face of such apparently favorable circumstances for the growth of skills we are confronted by the fact that investigations have revealed a shocking lack of mastery in certain skills. What is the explanation of this paradox? In what has our program of instruction failed to function? What measures must we adopt to overcome the difficulty?

Perhaps it is appropriate at this point to offer some proof for the statement that there has been poor mastery of skills. The results obtained when the Iowa Every-Pupil

Can an activity program be reconciled with the systematic, graded development of basic skills? Specific suggestions for overcoming present deficiencies were offered by the head of the kindergarten-primary department in the schools of East Chicago, Indiana, in a paper read before the National Council for the Social Studies at Detroit in July.

Tests of Basic Skills were administered to about twenty-five thousand pupils in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades may be cited as one bit of evidence. This battery of tests, designed to discover the extent to which pupils had mastered certain basic skills, contained among other things a section to test such basic study skills as comprehension of maps, reading of graphs, use of basic references, utilization of an index, and use of the dictionary. The results showed great variability both in pupil and class achievement, with relatively small average gains from grade to grade. Time does not permit a detailed report here regarding mastery of each skill. Those interested in following the matter further will find a very illuminating discussion written by Howard R. Anderson in the *Elementary School Journal* for February, 1936. It is enough to say that the investigation indicated quite conclusively that Iowa pupils completing the eighth grade had no adequate mastery of five skills generally regarded as necessary to effective work in social studies.

The geographers have also concerned themselves with this problem of how well elementary pupils are mastering certain basic skills. Many of those considered as basic to good work in geography are of equal significance throughout the social studies. Two investigations reported with ample detail in the *Thirty-Second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education<sup>1</sup> indicate that teachers of geography have probably been no more success-

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<sup>1</sup> Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Pub. Co., 1933.



ful in obtaining skill mastery than have other social-studies teachers. George F. Howe conducted an investigation to measure the ability of pupils in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades to understand and interpret map symbols; and he reported that "the low percentage of correct answers in the major portion of the test convinced the experimenters that children's concepts in map work are inexact and obscure." The other study, reported by Mary Tucker Thorp in the same *Yearbook* investigated the ability of pupils in grades four to eight to use a globe, to read maps, to understand and interpret the symbols used in presenting data about climatic elements, to use an index and an appendix, and to read graphs. Omitting the detailed results of the various tests, the findings may be summarized briefly by saying that the total of unsatisfactory and omitted answers in nearly every item and at almost every grade level were larger than the total number of satisfactory answers. As Miss Thorp concluded, it appears that "incidental teaching of correct usage of geography tools has failed."

If further evidence is needed that this is a pertinent problem we need only to scan current literature in the field. Writers and lecturers are calling attention to this lack in no uncertain terms. In *Educational Method* for December, 1936, an issue devoted largely to a consideration of the social studies, three different articles touch on this same point. Mary Kelty says in speaking of the development of skills that "a study of gradation of difficulty is urgently needed, to be followed by definite attempts to incorporate instruction in those skills into the school experience of children." William B. Brown proposes three principles he believes necessary to develop more effective classroom teaching. The second of these principles is "teaching of needed skills, abilities, and essential information in as functional and creative a manner as is consistent with the learning materials at hand"; and Mr Brown adds that "the tendency in too many courses of study is to disregard essen-

tial skills and abilities as a protest against formal drill and memoriter learning." In the third article C. A. Harper discusses steps of advance to be made in the secondary social-studies curriculum. He comes out boldly for the teaching of skills when he says that "there are also a number of very definite techniques or skills which we must teach directly. All of the desirable attitudes in the world will not produce efficiency without accompanying skills. How to find facts, how to evaluate them, and how to apply them—all of these are definitely teachable skills. . . . If we need more time to get these essential attitudes and these indispensable skills across to children, then we have the undeniable right to eliminate any less important studies which conflict with this end."

It would seem that both at the elementary and secondary levels educators are recognizing the necessity for dealing in a direct and forceful manner with this matter of obtaining pupil mastery of skills.

**Y**OU are probably saying to yourself—if you have accepted as true the charge so far made against social-studies teaching—"But why has this happened?" Such a question should occupy our attention, for it is only when we are able to analyze the sources of our difficulties that we are very likely to overcome them.

As I searched for an explanation of the matter I was forced to conclude that it has its roots in the philosophy which has permeated elementary education for almost a generation, that is in the so-called activity movement. Lest what I say here be construed as war upon the activists, I hasten to align myself with them by saying that I have long believed and do still believe in "learning by experiencing," and in the education of "the whole child." I think that the activity movement has brought about an enormous improvement in elementary education, and that it offers great potential possibilities. Nevertheless, like many other things in life the activity movement,



method, approach, or what have you is not fool proof.

Implied in the very nature of the movement are certain tendencies which, if not offset, are very likely to produce undesirable results. One of these tendencies is to minimize the necessity for planned sequential teaching. It seems to many devotees of the activity school to be enough if the children are pursuing interests vital to themselves. To insist upon a planned program of skill development appears to such persons to be a violation of pupil personality, an interference with the child's divine right to satisfy his own felt needs of the moment. Another tendency native to the activity movement, and closely related to the first one mentioned, is to leave much to incidental teaching. This has come about partly as a by-product of integration (since complete integration apparently provides little time for practice in specific skills and techniques peculiar to one subject-matter field) and partly as a protest against the rigid, formal, and often pointless teaching of an earlier day. Certainly no one advocates returning to this type of education. We all believe in learning experiences for which children can see a reason and for which they can if possible find an immediate use. Nevertheless there are some of us, even among the activity enthusiasts, who think that, even though we may be helping children to live richly now, we cannot escape our responsibility to guide them also in the acquisition of those skills and knowledges essential to their fullest living not only at present but more particularly in the years immediately ahead of them.

Much of the responsibility for the prevailing laxness in regard to teaching skills must be placed at the door of curriculum makers and textbook writers. The teacher may sometimes fail to do all that is outlined for her, but she certainly can not be expected to go far beyond the requirements of the course of study or the guidance of the textbook and develop carefully graded sequences of skills. Sometimes she lacks the

ability to do this alone, and always she lacks the time necessary to map out such a program and put it into operation. It seems to me to be clearly the responsibility of curriculum groups and experts, supervisors, educators in experimental schools, and textbook authors to furnish leadership in building a program for mastery of skills. The classroom teacher can be counted upon to do her part faithfully, when the leaders have pointed the way.

ALL of my discussion thus far has implied the need for one last question, namely, "What can we do to obtain better mastery of skills?" I have already spoken of the need for certain groups of educators assuming the responsibility of leadership in this matter. May I elaborate this point further by suggesting a few factors which need to be taken account of in formulating a program for skill mastery? In the first place it seems to me important to recognize that there are two kinds of skills employed in social-studies work. Under the first kind I would list all those skills peculiar to the social studies or to closely related fields of learning. The second kind embraces those that have their origins in other phases of subject matter, but which are widely employed for furthering social-studies objectives and for obtaining creative expression of ideas gained in the social studies.

The development of those skills that have their origin in the social studies becomes the peculiar responsibility of educators in the social-studies field. Curriculum makers, experimentalists, and text book writers must plan an organized and sequential development that will not only carry through the elementary grades but that will also integrate smoothly with the skill program planned for the secondary level.

In order to make my argument here more specific I shall enumerate some of the skills of this first type and shall even venture to offer purely for illustrative purposes a suggested gradation of difficulties for one such skill. Map and globe interpretation; graph

and chart reading; the use of an index and a table of contents; the utilization of such basic reference materials as atlases, encyclopedias, and yearbooks; the building of vocabulary and concepts peculiar to the social studies, and the reading of specialized social-studies material I would suggest as skills which, if properly presented in the elementary school, should be completely mastered by the end of the junior high-school course.

**T**O illustrate my point that each of these skills must be broken into its component elements and these presented grade by grade, as the child's increasing maturity permits, I offer this very tentative gradation of difficulty regarding map interpretation.

In grade one the child is usually concerned with home and family relationships. Among the learning activities used to further such study might well be the making of a plan for the playhouse that is to be built. Such a plan should be put on paper only after children have actually "dramatized" the situation on the schoolroom floor. By this I mean that they have stepped off and marked with chalk the space that can be used for this purpose, that they have decided where the door and windows can be placed most conveniently and have marked these on their chalk lines, that they have tried out different positions for the furniture and marked those decided upon as satisfactory. When class discussion has reached this stage it will be very satisfying for the children to record their conclusions in permanent form on a chart. What is more natural than a reproduction on a large sheet of paper or tagboard of the plan that they have recorded with chalk on the floor? Such an activity as this not only makes for purposeful thinking, but it gives the child the first concept necessary to map interpretation.

In the second grade children almost universally consider some phase of community life. The first-grade experience with plan making can easily be extended so that the

child draws a plan of the street in the community, showing the location of some place of interest. For example such a plan might show the route from the school to the fire station with these two buildings marked. Again concrete experience would furnish the basis for symbolism, that is, the children would walk over the route to be mapped, noting the number of blocks and the turns to be made. The conventional plan of marking directions on maps could well be explained and utilized at this level.

In grade three children are concerned in arithmetic with measurement. This would be an appropriate time to have a map of the schoolroom drawn to scale, for instance one foot equal to one inch. A few major features of room furnishing might well be located in their proper positions. Since children at this level often begin to read of people of other lands either through organized social studies or their regular work in reading, it is well when occasion arises to present a simple map and to show children where they live and where the children of the other land live. They will not understand all the symbolism of the map, but they will get the feel of "here" and "there."

In grade four the child ordinarily meets a more formal program of social studies, either as separate subjects or as a fusion course. He is very likely to be plunged into too many map difficulties as a result. Suppose we say that during this year he should learn (a) to name and locate the continents and oceans; (b) to recognize the symbols for mountains, lowlands, rivers, cities, and political divisions; (c) to locate the portions of the earth which his specific study concerns and to apply his knowledge of symbols and directions in interpreting data here.

Building upon such beginnings, in the fifth grade the child should certainly learn (a) the location and significance of equator, tropics, circles, and poles, and how to utilize this information in interpreting facts regarding climate; (b) to identify on more complex maps, such as surface, rainfall, and temperature, the symbols already learned

on simple maps; (c) the meaning and use of degrees in measuring distance from the equator, and of the scale of miles in measuring distance from point to point; (d) to read maps showing such specialized features as distribution of coal or livestock or population within a specific area.

In the sixth grade the child should understand the meaning of the international color symbols. In addition he should be able (a) to locate cities, countries, rivers, mountains, and other important features of regions studied; (b) to read longitude and latitude and understand their significance as they affect time belts and climatic conditions; (c) to be able to interpret maps presenting physical phenomena so that he can draw conclusions regarding the probable life conditions of the region; (d) to clarify his own learnings by filling in data on outline maps and by sketching maps to show certain specified features.

This rather hasty and very incomplete description of map skills has not been given to furnish material for curriculum building but merely to illustrate the point that gradation of skill can be made. I hope too that it has pointed your attention once more toward the often forgotten truth that any intelligent comprehension of abstract symbolism must have its basis in concrete experience.

**D**EVELOPMENT of skills of the second kind—those that have their origins in other phases of subject matter—is not the primary responsibility of the social-studies department, but certainly workers in this field should co-operate actively with leaders in other fields to obtain a program of work that will not only provide for developing a wide variety of skills but will likewise provide opportunity for growth from year to year. Such close planning between departments is the best guarantee of education for the "whole child."

Again in order to make my discussion more specific I shall resort to an enumeration and illustration of certain skills of this

kind. In this group I would include the language arts in their several forms, that is, oral and written composition, dramatization, and the various aspects of reading. Fine and industrial arts likewise furnish many skills to serve the social studies, for example, drawing, painting, modeling, soap carving, weaving, and construction.

In spite of the temptation to go into the matter of reading, since this is often considered the most fundamental skill used in the learning of social studies, I shall content myself by merely mentioning three ways in which it seems to me that the primary grades have failed to prepare children to read and interpret social-studies materials. In the first place the material at this level is almost wholly narrative, whereas social studies involve largely the reading of descriptive and expository matter which employs rather different abilities for comprehension and interpretation. Our second error has grown naturally from the first, that is, the vocabulary of the primary reading program makes little or no preparation for the large and technical vocabulary required in intermediate social studies. And finally I would point to the necessity for including more generally as an objective of primary reading the training of children in a wider variety of skills.

I have suggested that skills arising in other subjects may contribute greatly to social studies. It is of course equally true that social studies provide content for the practice of these other skills. To illustrate these interrelations may I tell you of one bit of work recently done in a second grade in my own system. This class, taught by Miss Elenore Thomas, was studying "cave men." They read, painted, drew, constructed, made slides, and engaged in a number of other activities that I shall not mention. It is only of their use of language skills that I wish to speak. They received initial instruction in skills assigned for presentation in second grade, practice on forms previously presented, and some incidental teaching of skills usually presented in later grades.



Their major language situations were:

1. Summarizing from time to time the content of reading and class discussion. This involved making individual reports, debating informally questions that happened to arise, answering questions raised at the beginning of the unit, making individual oral and written summaries.

2. Planning a trip to the Field Museum in Chicago. This involved listing suggestions for behavior on trip, making lists of pupil objectives for the trip, making oral and written summaries for a class book of what was seen, writing notes of thanks to the mother who accompanied the class, and to the clerk who hectographed their class book.

3. Planning an auditorium program to be given as a culmination of the unit. This brought about planning of the program, trying out for talks, writing invitations to parents, addressing envelopes, giving the program which contained informational talks based on a set of homemade slides, answering questions asked by pupils in the audience, introducing parents to teacher.

4. Making a "cave men" marionette show. This led to discussion of materials needed for marionettes, of committees needed and the duties of each, to reporting progress from time to time on scenery, stage, and puppets, giving and accepting criticism, giving dramatizations of cave life based on factual material read and later transferring these dramatizations to the marionette stage, writing accounts to be left as a record for other groups who might want to make and operate a marionette show.

With such a program as this organized so that there is provision for growth in learnings from grade to grade, need more

be said about the mutual advantages of interrelated skill development?

THE responsibility of educational leaders for recognizing the types of skills employed and for providing a sequential development of the skills under each type opens a new area for educational research and investigation. Expert opinion can be employed to list skills that probably should be taught, and curriculum workers may incorporate these into courses of study; but only the slow process of experimental teaching and testing will finally determine the suitability of the skills included or their most economical grade placement. The geographers have made a small beginning on this problem of experimental teaching.

To test adequately skill mastery in the social studies is one of the most difficult phases of the problem, but in spite of the rather discouraging conclusions of the Commission on the Social Studies some progress has been made. Indeed the contributions of those persons who worked under the direction of the commission have pointed the way, while the later work on the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills and on those tests included in the Cooperative History Test Series has provided further guidance for those who wish to measure skill mastery.

Our problem seems clearly defined, with the necessary procedures for solution implied in the nature of the problem itself. It only remains for students of the social studies to undertake the detailed and perhaps tedious business of defining skills and of teaching, testing, and readjusting until a reasonable gradation has been secured.



# The Literature of Sociology 1935 and 1936

LOUIS WIRTH AND EDWARD A. SHILS

(Continued From the October Issue)

## SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY OF KNOWLEDGE

UNTIL quite recently the major part of social psychological literature has consisted of general textbooks and attitude studies.<sup>45</sup> In the past few years however there has been a movement toward a greater differentiation and concentration of social psychological concepts, part of the credit for which must go to the current which has been interested in bringing about a union of psychiatry and sociology. One worthy instance of this was Karen Horney's "Culture and Neurosis," in the April, 1936, issue of the *American Sociological Review*, in which she traced the neurotic consequences of the competitive atmosphere of our culture. She saw the middle class fear of failure, in a society placing a high premium on success, as leading to inhibitions, failure or refusal to seize available opportunities, and the undermining of self-confidence. Another author who has been associated with this movement has been John Dollard, whose attempt to formulate the major categories relevant to the understanding of a personal history was *Criteria for the Life History*.<sup>46</sup> He did no more, however, than formulate a number of quite obvious generalities. The book was in the main exceedingly repetitious and, in spite of its asseverations, offered but little to guide one person in understanding the

life story of another person. Margaret Mead, who is still another of this persuasion, achieved more success in her *Sex and Temperament*,<sup>47</sup> in which she undertook to analyze the differences between men and women in three primitive societies: (1) where both men and women are unaggressive and gentle; (2) where men and women are rough and aggressive; and (3) where women are dominant and the male dependent. She laid great stress on the significance of the formation of character in adolescence through the medium of the family.

Three of the more important works during our period were written by persons trained as psychologists. Paul Pigors' *Leadership or Domination*,<sup>48</sup> which seemed to have had its original orientation in the study of children's groups, was based on a conceptual distinction between leadership, as something growing out of the acceptance of the leader by the led, and domination, as representing an imposition of the leader on the led. Although this book was quite useful in analyzing intimate groups, Pigors was at a loss when dealing with the wider aspects of the social structure. The book contained good remarks on morale and discipline. It covered much of the relevant literature, with however some very glaring omissions, for example, Max Weber's types of authority. It was on the whole very aphoristic. That concepts which relate merely to attitudes in an elementary way are not adequate for dealing with the

<sup>45</sup> For a convenient summary see G. W. Allport "Attitudes" in Carl A. Murchison ed., *Handbook of Social Psychology*. Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark Univ. Press, 1935.

<sup>46</sup> New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1935.

<sup>47</sup> New York: Morrow, 1935.

<sup>48</sup> Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1935.

structural phenomenon of superordination was evident from this book.

Another approach to sociology from psychology was Junius F. Brown's *Psychology and the Social Order*,<sup>49</sup> the aim of which was to write a general sociology in terms of topological psychology. His book really constituted a loose summary of current ideas on American sociology and social psychology, supplemented by an extensive discussion of political organization from a Marxist point of view. In addition to its attempt at a systematic application of Marxism, it was characterized by the translation of all terms into those of "field theory," which indeed the author regarded as his chief contribution. It was, however, doubtful whether the author's combination of topology and Marxism (much of which seems to be based on Strachey) contributed anything new to our understanding or offered any conceptual leads to new knowledge; and the avowed attempt at a unification of social science did not lead to anything more than terminological transformations.

Muzafer Sherif's *The Psychology of Social Norms*,<sup>50</sup> which was also the work of a psychologist, came closest to a sociological analysis of the rôle of culture and social interaction as the determinant of foci of attention both in perception and in action. In part his conclusions were based on the formation of norms of perception under laboratory conditions, but the implications for extralaboratory situations were acutely noted. It was a book with a simple argument but one fundamental for an understanding of the elements of social life.

A much more complex analysis of the formation and structure of norms as guides to perception and conduct was elaborated in Kenneth Burke's *Permanence and Change*.<sup>51</sup> It attempted to consider the many ramifications implicit in the statement that our thoughts and acts

are affected by our interests, and it succeeded in doing so not merely on the level of general affirmation but by a host of concrete insights in a large number of intellectual and social processes. It was a valuable contribution to social psychology by a non-academic literary critic.

In a more elaborate and comprehensive fashion Karl Mannheim in *Ideology and Utopia*<sup>52</sup> traced the relations between social position, interests and values on the one hand, and ideas on the other hand, analyzing the manner in which the more important socio-political movements of modern times have shaped the thought of modern man. He did this not merely in general but with reference to specific problems, especially those of the relations between theory and practice and between the present and the future. Both in its concrete researches and in its conceptual approach, his book marked a new level in the sociological analysis of intellectual activity. Its analysis of historical and bureaucratic conservative thinking, of the anarchist mentality, of Marxism, liberalism and fascism as modes of thought, in terms of fundamental categories, not only threw a new light on these particular currents of thought but stated the problems in such a way that it was possible to derive generalizations with a wide applicability to the immediate period in which we are living.

Two monographic studies in the same field of the sociology of knowledge which merit mention were Hans Gerth's *Die Sozialgeschichtliche Lage der bürgerlichen Intelligenz um die Wende des 18 Jhdts: Ein Beitrag zur Soziologie des deutschen Frühliberalismus* (published in Berlin in 1935, "The Social Historical Position of the Bourgeois Intelligentsia at the Turn of the Eighteenth Century: A Contribution to the Sociology of Early German Liberalism") and R. K. Merton's "Puritanism, Pietism, and Science" in the *Sociological Review* of January, 1936. The former, by a pupil of

<sup>49</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936.

<sup>50</sup> New York: Harper, 1936.

<sup>51</sup> New York: New Republic, 1935.

<sup>52</sup> New York: Harcourt Brace, 1936.

Professor Mannheim, sought to establish what particular points in the social structure were most favorable to the emergence of liberalism and found them in the merchant, administrative, and intellectual classes, for a variety of reasons that follow from a detailed, highly empirical analysis of the organization and trends in German society at the time. Merton's study of the factors in the early development of modern science extended Max Weber's interpretation from the interpretation of the influence of religious ideas on economic conduct to the study of the influence of religious ideas on the pursuit of science in England in the seventeenth century and in Germany in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and, following Weber, it attributed much importance to Protestantism.

Albert Léon Guérard's *Literature and Society*<sup>53</sup> was a model of how the sociological study of intellectual activity should not be carried out. It was concerned with determining the influence of various social factors on literature, and its whole discussion was vitiated by its failure to distinguish between the form of a literary work and its quality. He reviewed such factors as race, nationality, time, economic, social and political environment, and climate, and he decided that most of these factors have no explanatory value while great literature is most likely to be produced in a commercial, stratified, and loosely despotic society. He then touched very discursively on the characteristics of literary men and the structure of the literary world, including publishing, literary circles, and salons. Although he mentioned many of the kinds of fact that must be taken into consideration in the sociology of literature, his peculiar anecdotal method of writing, as well as his conceptual amorphousness, prevented him from stating anything very relevant. His book did, however, contain a bibliography bearing on the sociology of literature in English, although it is far from complete.

<sup>53</sup> New York: Lothrop, 1935.

#### SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND INSTITUTIONS

IN the treatment of social institutions and social organization several notable books and articles have appeared. F. Stuart Chapin's *Contemporary American Institutions*<sup>54</sup> was a collection of a number of research studies in which the author tried to be as quantitative as possible about local government, the family, education, religion, social welfare agencies, and the New Deal, on the whole with striking success. There were, however, places where his desire to be scientific resulted in the translation of what has been accepted as ordinary common knowledge since the days of the muckrakers into a jargon that adds nothing to our understanding. Thus a political machine which is not part of the explicit legal order was called a "latent culture pattern," a term which was also used in a somewhat different sense elsewhere, where it meant those phases of the social structure which are not the result of any individual's specific intentions. There are, however, other places, as in the section on the family and on the life span of business institutions, where his ingenuity brought high returns. Once he left his quantitative research and turned to theorizing, the results were not so happy as when he was devising empirical methods of research into concrete institutions. An exception should be noted in the case of his social status index which was based on some very dubious assumptions that fail to take account of the most difficult issues involved in the analysis of status. Another peculiar feature of *Contemporary American Institutions* was the author's faith in graphic representations of social phenomena, for which he even went so far as to claim explanatory value. He failed to recognize that much of his devotion to this type of "geometrical sociology" was due to an hypostatization of certain very ambiguous concepts like "social distance" and "social space," the real sociological equivalents of which have never been made ex-

<sup>54</sup> New York: Harper, 1935.



PLICIT by their proponents. The book was an excellent representative of a significant current in American sociology.

Another book which began with a very exact base in empirical investigation and which sought to extract the broader implications of the interesting facts it uncovered was Thomas N. Whitehead's *Leadership in a Free Society*.<sup>55</sup> Like Elton Mayo's *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization*,<sup>56</sup> this book was a by-product of the investigations into industrial psychology conducted by the Harvard Business School for the Western Electric Company, and, like its precursor, it was fundamentally concerned with the non-rational side of human relations, especially as they take the form of morale. Whitehead studied the particular social situations, inside and outside the shop, of a number of workers in the plant and discovered a high correlation between their productivity and the satisfaction of their "non-rational needs" in their social relationships. Whereas Mayo was satisfied to do no more than to state the existence of *anomie* (subjective directionlessness) and its immediate causes, Whitehead tried to find its broader sources. He believed that our society suffers from *anomie* because it is lacking in effective leadership capable of organizing situations so that the rank and file of the citizenry do not have their social sentiments injured. He thought that the business leaders rather than the politicians should undertake this task of social integration; leadership must make gradual changes and must guard the continuity of definitions which enable individuals to adjust. As long as he kept to a general social psychological level of the discussion of satisfaction, he was on very firm ground, even though some of his very suggestive key concepts such as "poverty of social relationships" were unduly vague. His lack of experience in structural sociological analysis appeared, however, when he analyzed the type of

guidance that the leaders should give to society. Thus he said nothing about the type of social structure which will afford the largest satisfaction of the social sentiments, about the specific institutions through which it can be effected, about planning procedures, or about leadership selection and formation. In spite of these criticisms, the book was one of the major contributions to the discussion of the central problem of sociological analysis, namely, the bases of social order.

A far more brilliant and precise analysis of some of the problems of social organization was to be found in Karl Mannheim's *Mensch und Gesellschaft im Zeitalter des Umbaus*,<sup>57</sup> a work in which the fruitfulness of the sociological approach in a wide variety of problems was amply demonstrated. The central problem was: Which factors promote and which factors impede the growth of rationality in social life? The key to the discussions was the disproportionality in the distribution of rational and moral capacity, which is a widespread phenomenon, and which is irreconcilable with the harmonious functioning of a society as democratized and as interdependent as is ours. In showing how the disproportionate distribution operates as an irrationalizing factor, Mannheim made the useful distinction between functional and substantial rationality, the former applying to rationalized organization and the latter to subjective rationality. The rationalization of the social structure concentrates control in a few hands and can relieve the masses of the necessity of subjective rationality, since they have their decisions made for them by others. Accordingly our society is unprepared for crisis situations that require individual decision and rational self-control for their liquidation. This has led to the present crisis of democracy and the emergence of dictatorships and movements towards dictatorships in the Western capitalistic countries. Mannheim regarded this as

<sup>55</sup> Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1936.

<sup>56</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1933.

<sup>57</sup> Leiden, 1935; tr. to be pub. by Harcourt.



a warning to social scientists to study more carefully the relations between social structural and social psychological facts, and pointed out that the satisfaction and sublimation of non-rational impulses must be planned, since, if left to themselves, they can destroy the rationalized structure of society. He approached the problems of rationalization and planning through a discussion of the changed function of elite groups in contemporary society as compared with the early stages of liberal society and showed that the laissez faire system in a mass society has culturally destructive effects. The growth in the number of elite groups, the breakdown of their exclusiveness, the change in the principles of selection, and the social composition of the elites all operate to prevent the elite from functioning in a culturally integrating way and in this manner open the road to dictatorship. He distinguished between planning and dictatorship and emphasized the lack of necessary connection between them. There followed an analysis of planning, in which a distinction was made between discovering-inventive- and planning-thinking as modes of thought adapted to different types of social structures, which was followed by an interesting discussion of the implications of the planning approach in social science. The entire discussion was an important contribution to the sociology of planning along lines that have not been dealt with before.

Another contribution to the theory of social organization was Everett C. Hughes' "The Ecological Aspect of Institutions" in the *American Sociological Review* of April, 1936, the implicit starting point of which was the question "How is the social order maintained?" or "How can men act collectively?" He focused his attention on how an institution can maintain itself in a competitive order and indicated that "enterprise" or a co-ordinating and guiding functionary is indispensable for survival in a changing environment. He then narrowed his analysis to the discussion of the influence of factors related to space on the survival

of institutions, distinguishing between those institutions which have a monopoly of the supply of certain services to their members, such as the state or a state church, and those which must compete with others for the demand or loyalty of their members. With regard to the latter, he offered some shrewd insights into the competitions of mercantile institutions for positions at those points where population is congregated. The study as a whole, although aphoristic and even sketchy, fitted into a very coherent framework which has a close affinity to the books discussed above.

#### SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

ONE of the fields of sociological research which had been left comparatively untouched in English-speaking countries until the recent depression is that which is concerned with social classes. There had, of course, been great studies like Charles Booth's *Life and Labour of the People in London* and the various classical American sociologists, Ward, Sumner, Small, and Ross, had dealt with it in their general treatises. In the last few years however under the impact of economic and political changes, a new empirical interest has arisen in this subject in both academic and non-academic circles. Two books with avowed political intentions, one by Lewis Corey, *The Crisis of the Middle Class*, and the other by Alfred M. Bingham, *Insurgent America*,<sup>58</sup> discussed the economic position of the middle classes in the United States and the possibilities of enlisting them into revolutionary political movements. Corey, as an orthodox Marxist, regarded the proletarianization of the middle class as a prelude to its radicalization, while Bingham, who is a radical with strong American populist leanings, emphasized the bourgeois outlook of the American middle class and accordingly the difficulty of recruiting the middle classes by means of propaganda that lays stress on their non-middle-class char-

<sup>58</sup> New York: Covici Friede, 1935, and Harper, 1935.

acter. Neither of the books supplied any new data, but both were based on material that is quite adequate for limited purposes. Both, and especially Bingham, offered many valuable concrete insights into contemporary America, but from the point of view of systematic sociological analysis they left much to be desired.

This criticism was especially relevant to *The Fate of the Middle Classes*<sup>59</sup> by Alec Brown, a vague Marxist tract based mostly on an analysis of H. G. Wells' autobiography, which the author regarded as a legitimate source for a comprehensive discussion of the present position of the middle class in British society and its future chances as a dominant class, which he considered to be slight. Brown was of the opinion that the middle classes can no longer supply the leadership for our present society and that the best values for which the middle class has striven, but which its methods and mentality prevented it from attaining, can be reached only under the leadership of the working class with the middle class in a collaborating rôle. In spite of its negligible scientific character, the book was interesting for a number of remarks the author made about the prospects of the various liberal professions under late capitalism.

A more informative and more specialized investigation in this field was *The Condition of Clerical Labour in Britain*<sup>60</sup> by F. D. Klingender, a Marxist study of the change in the numerical position of clerical employees in England from 1840 to the present, their salaries, and their organizations. He showed, on the basis of extensive research, that, as regards their economic position, the clerical occupations have become more and more proletarian. Like most other Marxian works on this question, the author neglected to analyze the bases of the specific middle-class mentality of the clerical employees, because he regarded it as a passing phase which could be disregarded, since

their proletarian economic position will soon force them to accept a more proletarian attitude.

This unsatisfactory treatment of a problem of major importance provided the point of departure of Hans Speier's studies of the class stratification problem. Dissatisfied with the inadequacy of the Marxist treatment of the social psychological side of the class problem, this author attempted to recast the entire framework within which classes are to be studied by making "social status" or "social honor" the central issue.<sup>61</sup> For him the class structure of a society was the way in which status or honor is distributed, and he thought that honor itself can be ascribed as the result of the possession of various characteristics, which include, among others, occupation, wealth, military affiliations, family, and achievement. Thus while this conception did not neglect the objective factors on which the Marxian approach concentrates, it placed them in a more comprehensive sociological setting. In another study, "Honor and Social Structure," in *Social Research* of February, 1935, Speier showed how the specific activities to which varying degrees of honor are allotted vary from one social system to another. Here he differentiated his ideas further, elaborating the concept of "social image," which represents in the minds of the various classes the bearers of the activity to which the highest honor is accorded, and which constitutes the model of behavior. All who accept the validity of these standards seek to realize certain aspects of this ideal behavior in their own lives. Some features of the process whereby one social image displaces another with the historical transition from one social structure to another were touched on in this article but were made the subject of more detailed consideration by the same author in the same periodical of August, 1936, in "Militarism in the Eighteenth Century," which dealt with the process by which

<sup>59</sup> London: Gollancz, 1936.

<sup>60</sup> London: Lawrence, 1935.

<sup>61</sup> "Social Stratification in the Urban Community," *American Sociological Review*, April, 1936.

the bourgeois intellectuals of the eighteenth century undermined the esteem in which military courage was held and replaced it with civil and industrial virtues.

Aside from the work of Speier, but little advance has been made in the United States in the formulation of a body of concepts relevant to the analysis of classes. The results of such a lack of theoretical guidance were evident in the *Middle Classes Then and Now* by Franklin Palm.<sup>62</sup> This author applied concepts appropriate for the social structure of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to antiquity and to the middle ages with an appalling outcome. Yet, since most of his book was concerned with the middle classes from the seventeenth century onward, he was able to present, within a very loose framework, considerable interesting material on the development of the bourgeoisie, its struggles against the aristocracy, and the split of the bourgeoisie into the plutocracy and the middle classes. He devoted several chapters to the expressions of bourgeois mentality in literature. His conclusions did not differ very much from those of most other authors. They were, namely, that the middle classes are in a situation of crisis, their existence being endangered by plutocratic fascism on the right and proletarian communism on the left. Unsatisfactory as the book was from any serious scientific point of view, the fact that it was among the best of its kind indicates the great distance that the systematic sociological analysis of social classes still has to travel.

#### THE FAMILY

WITHIN the field of social organization the study of the family has occupied a prominent place in American sociology, and in recent years it has maintained its position. One new current of some importance is the development of more scientific studies of factors in marital adjustment. Outstanding among these was that carried

on by Ernest W. Burgess and Leonard S. Cottrell, of which a brief summary was offered in "The Prediction of Adjustment in Marriage" in the *American Sociological Review* for October, 1936. After obtaining some objective indices of marital success which correlate quite highly with the judgments of the married persons themselves and their friends, they studied a large number of factors that they considered to be relevant and concluded with positive results concerning the relationship between marital success and organizational affiliation, type of employment, occupational history, outside friendships, and religious affiliations.

Harriet R. Mowrer,<sup>63</sup> who used case rather than statistical procedures, concerned herself with the place of sex in marital adjustment and concluded that, while sexual adjustment is of great significance in marital success, it is not independent of other factors in the marital situation. Her approach comprised a dilution of psychoanalysis with the concepts of current social psychology.

Robert Cooley Angell's *The Family Encounters the Depression*<sup>64</sup> was an attempt to determine by rather uncertain methods the influence of economic deprivation on various types of families, classified by the degree of integration and adaptability that they manifest. Not only was the concept of integration very unclear, but it was also uncertain as to whether the adaptability of the family was determined from the families' experience during the depression or from previous experiences. There seemed to be no unambiguous demonstration that it was the latter, in which case the results of the study were already contained in the preliminary classification of the families. There was, apart from any theoretical considerations, an interesting reproduction of

<sup>62</sup> *Personal Adjustment and Domestic Discord*. New York: American Book, 1935, and "Sex, as a Factor in Domestic Discord," *American Sociological Review*, April, 1936.

<sup>63</sup> New York: Scribner, 1936.

<sup>64</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1936.



family histories which, owing to their vividness, might be quite valuable for pedagogical purposes.

The structure of the family from the point of view of the distribution of authority within it was the theme of the large collective volume issued by the International Institute of Social Research under the editorship of Max Horkheimer entitled *Autorität und Familie*.<sup>65</sup> This work consisted of a rather general and not always clear discussion of authority and the family in general by Horkheimer, an analysis of the personality structure with reference to obedience to authority and revolt against it from a Freudian viewpoint somewhat qualified by Marxism by Erich Fromm, and a long historical section on the concept of authority in the works of Luther, Calvin, Kant, Hegel, Marx, Pareto, and others, by Marcuse. The second part consisted in a rather rough preliminary report on a study of the attitudes towards authority of German white collar and skilled workers, which are to be correlated with many other facts about the interests and activities of the persons in question, as well as a preliminary report on another study of authority on the family in France, Austria, England, Switzerland, Belgium, and Holland, based on questionnaires and interviews with experts. Among the more finished sections of the undertaking were several valuable summaries of larger studies on legal, economic, and historical phases of family life. There were also a number of essays on the treatment of the family in the sociological literature of Germany, Italy, United States, and England.

*Family and Society* by C. C. Zimmerman and M. E. Frampton<sup>66</sup> was a rather poorly organized book most of which was given over to a portrayal of family life in the Ozarks and an abridged translation of the first volume of Frédéric LePlay's *Les ouvriers européens*, from which the authors

drew whatever general ideas they used in their analysis. As in others of Professor Zimmerman's works, there was a good summary of the important studies of family consumption.<sup>67</sup>

A significant development in modern family life, namely, the family clinic, was the subject of a refined but not too well grounded discussion by Kingsley Davis in "The Application of Science to Personal Relations" in the *American Sociological Review* for April, 1936. The author concluded that the family clinic can not be scientific in the sense of applying social science, because in clinical situations there are very likely to be conflicts of interest that require adjudication through appeal to non-rational standards repugnant to scientifically trained persons. The article was interesting for the issue which it implicitly raised concerning the planning of family adjustment in a swiftly changing and very heterogeneous society—developments that caused many to fear for the future of the family. The great historian of human marriage, Edvard Westermarck, in *The Future of Marriage in Western Civilization*<sup>68</sup> sought to set fears at rest by his assertion that marriage and the family will continue to exist in the future in spite of many changes in attitudes toward sexual adjustment, extramarital relations, and free love. Divorce will become easier and more widely accepted, and, even though there will be greater freedom, monogamy will still exist because the sentiments that created the marriage and familial institutions in the first place will still continue to function.

<sup>65</sup> See also C. C. Zimmerman, *Consumption and Standards of Living*. New York: Van Nostrand, 1936, and F. M. Williams and C. C. Zimmerman, *Studies of Family Living in the United States and Other Countries*. Miscellaneous Publication, no. 223. Washington: Department of Agriculture, 1935. The latter is a remarkable bibliography of consumption studies in many languages, with extraordinarily good annotations. The former is likewise a useful summary of the various theories together with extensive criticisms. In this volume, too, the defective method of organization limits the usefulness of a scholarly work.

<sup>66</sup> New York: Macmillan, 1936.

<sup>65</sup> Paris, 1936.

<sup>66</sup> New York: Van Nostrand, 1935.

## RACIAL AND CULTURAL MINORITIES

**S**TUDIES of European immigrants in America once constituted a major preoccupation of American sociologists, but since the immigration legislation of the early post-war period much of the interest in this field has shifted from European immigrants to Negroes. In 1935 and 1936 only one book of note appeared which dealt with the Americanization of European immigrants in the United States. This was Caroline F. Ware's *Greenwich Village, 1920-1930*,<sup>69</sup> which dealt with the ethnic groups in this area of New York City. Her problem was to explain the non-integration of the newcomers into American life owing to the disjunction between the mechanisms of assimilation and what was meaningful to these outsiders. Alongside of this she traced the disintegration of moral consensus within the ethnic groups themselves, which took place so completely that it was not possible for them to transport their institutions from their European homes. Although dealing with contemporary situations, the book distinctly gave the impression of a retrospect over a period which has left America with still unsolved problems.

Also not without interest is the fact that one of the few books on immigrants that are not merely demographic or intended as textbooks was written about immigration into Canada. This was Lloyd G. Reynolds' *The British Immigrant: His Social and Economic Adjustment in Canada*.<sup>70</sup> Aside from general statistics, this study was confined to Montreal and a major share of the work was devoted to a discussion of occupational specialization and segregation. This investigation, too, found it necessary to approach its subject matter with class categories, and one of the best parts of the book was the treatment of the differential adjustment of British white collar workers and skilled artisans and laborers.

Another significant aspect of the shift in

interests in race problems is the increasing attention paid to the relationship between race and class stratification.<sup>71</sup> For example, Abram L. Harris, in *The Negro as Capitalist*,<sup>72</sup> followed in great detail the history of Negro banking enterprise and its rôle in the formation of a Negro "middle class" as a function of the segregation of the Negro community. Two investigations by E. D. Beynon, printed in the *American Journal of Sociology*, on "Social Mobility and Social Distance among Hungarian Immigrants in Detroit" in January, 1936, and on "The Gypsy in a Non-Gypsy Economy" in November, 1936, introduced the categories relevant to class analysis in order to obtain a fuller understanding of immigrants in a strange society. Such procedures would have been rare even a decade ago. Also we should not overlook in this connection the careful analysis of the economic position of the Negro in the United States and the internal economic differentiations conditioned by this subordinated position as presented in *The Negro Question in the United States* by James S. Allen.<sup>73</sup>

Another indication of the shift of attention was B. Schrieke's *Alien Americans*,<sup>74</sup> which was the report of a Dutch educational administrator on the situation of cultural and racial minorities in the United States. Although it used the more conventional analytical categories, it devoted only about a sixth of the book—in a retrospective tone—to European aliens, about half going to the Negro question, and the remainder to Orientals, Mexicans, and Indians. In this book the approach was more historical and descriptive than otherwise, supplying a convenient summary of immigration waves, legislation, and important interracial inci-

<sup>69</sup> See W. L. Warner, "American Caste and Class," *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1936, for an attempt, which is somewhat vitiated by questionable geometrical methods of thinking, to present a theoretical statement of this problem.

<sup>70</sup> Monograph no. 2. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1936.

<sup>71</sup> New York: International Publishers, 1935.

<sup>72</sup> New York: Viking Press, 1936.

<sup>68</sup> Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1935.

<sup>70</sup> Toronto: Oxford, 1935.

dents. It also contains some good insights on the occupational shifts between generations. Schrieke regarded the Negro problem as the American race problem and envisaged no solution as long as the plantation system exists.

In the more general studies of race Otto Klineberg's *Race Differences*<sup>76</sup> stood out as a careful analysis of the evidence, both historical and experimental, on biological, psychological, and cultural differences among races. He found that the evidence from intelligence tests is not conclusive and stated that racial differences must be traced to the cultural sphere.

#### DISORGANIZATION, DELINQUENCY, AND CRIME

THE year 1936 saw the publication of *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment*<sup>76</sup> by the veteran students of the delinquent, William Healy and Augusta Bronner. In accord with his earlier views Healy regarded delinquency as the expression of the attempt to find satisfaction for emotional frustrations that arise in intimate groups. The wider social situation, including the economic and community factors, are so highly variable, according to his view, that their influence upon delinquency is less directly determinable. In the research the family was taken as a unit, rather than the delinquent child alone. The study contained a brief discussion of the manner in which norms are inculcated in the individual and what the range of their effectiveness is. The study drew its material from three cities. A significant feature of the investigation was the paired study of delinquent and non-delinquent children in the same family. Marked differences in personality traits between delinquents and non-delinquents in the same family were noted. This phase of the study revealed that among those families living in favorable circumstances the delinquents were predomi-

nantly individuals with deviating personality traits, whereas among those living in unfavorable circumstances the normal personalities predominated, which indicated that when one lives under favorable circumstances one almost has to deviate to become delinquent, while under socially unfavorable circumstances deviation is not as necessary in the formation of a delinquent career. It was found that over 91 per cent of the delinquents and only 13 per cent of the non-delinquents were unhappy as children or had experienced great emotional shock. The authors pointed out that it is through the lack of satisfying human relationships that feelings of inadequacy, deprivation, or thwarting are created, and that these factors in turn account for the fact that, though living under the same larger environmental conditions which may be inimical to normal satisfactions, one child becomes delinquent and another remains non-delinquent. Significant as this finding was, it failed to take account of the fact that it is probable that the factors making for delinquency occur more frequently in some socio-economic groups than in others and that consequently the immediate causes of delinquency which the authors discovered in the family and intimate situations are in turn dependent for their incidence in the large upon wider community and social factors. The authors thus missed a great opportunity to link up their study of delinquency with the more external but more inclusive previous findings on the relation between community disorganization and personal disorganization, which have been revealed through the ecological studies, particularly those of Chicago.

What amounts to a critique of the Chicago studies in crime and delinquency has been produced by Sophia Robison in her volume *Can Delinquency Be Measured?*<sup>77</sup> which was a study of juvenile delinquency in New York City. The reliability of delinquency statistics based on court records was

<sup>76</sup> New York: Harper, 1935.

<sup>77</sup> New Haven: Yale Univ. Press.

<sup>77</sup> New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1936.



questioned; but it is still generally true that, in spite of their deficiency, such statistics as are derived from court records do furnish a relative measure of delinquency for comparative purposes, if one is not looking for too subtle gradations. It was held that the radial pattern with decreasing delinquency rates, as one passes from the center of the city toward the periphery, that has been found to characterize the distribution of delinquency in Chicago and other cities does not hold for New York. Poverty was discounted as a factor in delinquency, and race and nationality emphasized. Yet the supporting evidence was not entirely convincing, if one takes account of the contrary findings in some respects presented by J. D. Maller in an article on "Juvenile Delinquency in New York City."<sup>78</sup> A view of the causative factors in crime, based on a limited series of case studies, amplified by the psychiatric and psychoanalytic experience of the authors, was presented by Franz Alexander and William Healy in *Roots of Crime: Psychoanalytic Studies*.<sup>79</sup> In some respects this volume amplified the views as to crime causation expressed by Healy in the volume above cited, but leaned more definitely in the direction of a psychoanalytic interpretation.

A view of personal disorganization in relation to social crisis, in this case the economic depression, was provided in E. H. Sutherland and H. J. Locke's *Twenty Thousand Homeless Men*,<sup>80</sup> a study of unemployed men in the Chicago shelters, in which the life experiences and attitudes of men in the shelters was subjected to analysis, on the basis of life histories, statistics, interviews, and personal experiences de-

rived from living in shelters. The men who enter the shelters have in common destitution, homelessness, and willingness to accept relief. In some measure these are symptoms and products of social and economic inefficiency, which may be induced by old age, organic handicaps, psychopathies, defective intelligence, uncontrolled emotions, alcoholism, dissipation, and deprivation of intimate family and community relations, all of which were of course aggravated by prolonged unemployment and disruption of economic routines. Various types of homeless men were analyzed, among them the bum, the home guard casual, the migratory casual laborer, the steady unskilled laborer, the skilled worker, the white collar worker, the hobohemian, and non-hobohemian. The level of occupation was found to influence their reactions significantly, those in the lower occupations adjusting themselves more easily. In the higher occupations personal maladjustments were more largely found. The roads that lead to dependency were analyzed, and the activities of the shelter men described. Among them addiction to four vices was found to be characteristic, namely, excessive drinking, gambling, irregular sex practices, and begging. An interesting phase of the study was the process of shelterization, involving a change in the man's status, adjustment to the shelter situation, and identification with the shelter group. A brief account was given of the homeless man in history. His treatment has varied from repression and deterrence to individualization and attempts at rehabilitation. Present methods of mass relief were found to be inadequate but were seen as the result of social pressures in which the welfare of the homeless man plays a negligible rôle.

<sup>78</sup> *Journal of Psychology*, January, 1936.

<sup>79</sup> New York: Knopf, 1935.

<sup>80</sup> New York: Lippincott, 1936.

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# Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

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EVERY day of our lives a flood of periodical literature is offering us description, discussion, solution of the manifold problems that present themselves to our world. Some of the writers of this material appear to know all the answers, although others are more humble—or only more reticent. Perhaps a thoughtful reader—reading, comparing, weighing—finds himself still at a loss. The more sure the writer of an article seems to be, the more the reader may wonder whether he has taken into consideration all the facts and factors that may seem to disprove or invalidate that particular line of argument. The human mind longs to be sure. To know and to be secure in that knowledge is a craving that comes early to the human heart and is at times, I believe, even strong enough to assuage the final agonies of dissolution; but one of the consequences of education is to take from us any such comfort. The more the world has learned, the less it is willing to accept as final. The generation that is passing from our world's scene was very sure of many things—even of the ultimate difference between right and wrong, between wisdom and folly. Yet the world they leave as our heritage is indeed a sorry thing. With their technical skill and invention they built for us a magnificent engine of speed and power; but they evolved for us no workable rules of the road, and they trained no competent drivers.

That task lies heavy on the world today. It is constantly incumbent on this generation to re-evaluate its own observations, ideas, and judgments in the effort to evolve

such rules and train such drivers. What we decide today in the light of today's facts and opinions becomes untenable in the light of tomorrow's developments. The element of hope in the situation consists in the fact that mankind refuses to accept the problem as insoluble. He alone out of all the animal kingdom has sought some way around the apparently unbreakable laws of the universe. That one fact goes far to explain the evolution of man's long past; and that one fact will continue to condition his long future. The burden of responsibility in this matter is colossal as it falls upon teachers of youth. In any decent humility they can not hope to know all the answers. Yet they must believe in the possibility of teaching children to decide more wisely and to act more justly than ever did their elders. They must find sustenance in an unshakable faith that water can somehow rise higher than its source—that the pupil can learn more than his teacher can teach and that the education of today can become the wisdom of tomorrow.

## OUR WEALTH

OF the articles to be considered in our judgment of the world as we find it, one is David Cushman Coyle's "Balance What Budget?" in the October issue of *Harpers Magazine*, which attacks the whole question of values in our national life. It points out that "a balanced Treasury budget would not keep us from wasting our soil and our forests, and wearing away the skill of our workers and the stability of our institutions. . . . The nation is eating its phys-

ical and human resources and growing poorer year by year." In the three hundred years of establishing ourselves on a new continent it is natural that we have spent part of our resources, just as a business organization must dip into its capital in the months and years of getting started. This does not constitute a squandering of our patrimony, if we adjust ourselves to the fact that the time has now come to find some way to save and to use our real wealth in men and resources. There is enough of each to provide a wider, fuller life for us all—"to fulfill the dream of a better world." Does that dream "sound silly and sentimental now? It had better not, for that dream of a land of freedom to endure forever is all that America means. Without that, we are only one of nature's ghastly jokes." The author proposes that "some authority, preferably a foundation, should make a compilation of the known facts, perhaps filling the gaps with some original research, and should publish, in however technical a form, a first estimate as to what our budgetary condition is. Then the Government should see to it that the main outline of how we are doing becomes known to every voter. Once supplied with the general estimate, Congress and the people can have a chance to discuss intelligently the necessary policies to be adopted, so that the available labor will be suitably utilized, and the required technical improvements will be brought into play. As an operating job, that is mere engineering, in which Americans are proficient. As a job in political leadership, it is the greatest job in our history."

One obvious phase of our waste of resources was considered by Stuart Chase in his much-discussed book *Rich Land, Poor Land* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936, \$2.50); and the September issue of *New Frontiers* is devoted to a condensation of that book, written by the author's wife, Marian Tyler. "We have been called the richest nation ever known, and probably we are—now. But how rich is the most lav-

ish of prodigal sons when the last of his father's bonds has been sold and the proceeds spent?" The great continent, most of which is ours, is described as of yesterday, today, and tomorrow; and bit by bit the picture of devastation is drawn. Of course the book itself gives a more complete picture, and this summary can present only the main facts and argument. "Saint Paul preached in the city of Antioch, thundering against its pride of wealth and its sins. There were 400,000 people in the city. Today it is a miserable dusty Syrian town of 30,000. . . . Antioch perished not from its sins but from erosion on the Taurus and Lebanon Rivers. Protective terraces were neglected, forests were cut off, and the silt and gravel streamed down, as they stream from Ducktown today. There is no philosophical difference between the fate of Antioch and the possible fate of any prosperous town on the Ohio River. There is, however, a decided mechanical difference. . . . The machine has enabled us to telescope the old pattern. . . . The strength of our nation is due to the continent of North America. . . . We are its children, lost and homeless without its strong arms about us. Shall we destroy it?"

As a people, though, we ought not hastily decide that something certainly ought to be done and, equally hastily, set about doing something without adequate consideration. Several articles warn us of the dangers of such a course, as these dangers have been pointed out over and over again, explicitly and implicitly. All solid reform must rest on a valid understanding of things as they are; and an inch won permanently is better than a mile won temporarily. In the *Journal of Social Philosophy* of last July D. F. Pegrum's "Economics and Philosophy in Social Planning" argues that "economic planning is social philosophy in the sense . . . that . . . it is a program of action, an ideal to be striven for. . . . 'Planners' do not admittedly and ostensibly ignore present day economic forces and



fundamental problems. . . . but they ignore or eschew the findings of economic science which run contrary to their philosophy." The dangers of such planning seem obvious. On the other hand the economist "will point out wherein economic forces set limits. . . . He cannot be guided by wishes nor desires in this respect . . . he is bound by hard facts even though, as a human being, he may wish that things were otherwise than as they are."

In the *Political Science Quarterly* of September J. K. Finch warns of hasty conclusions in the matter of "Man versus Floods." "The flood problem in the United States has become, in recent years, more a matter of psychology and politics than an economic or social problem. . . . Coupled with a blind faith in the unlimited powers of modern science and engineering to do anything, we assume that floods can be stopped, that it is merely a matter of spending 'nobody's money'—that is, public funds—to stop them, and we thus demand that floods cease. Washington assures us that the administration will soon end erosion, floods and dust storms, and is prepared to create new federal activities which will dissipate more millions in works which may be economically unjustified and will probably add little or nothing to our national wealth or prosperity." Nevertheless "we can no more stop or *prevent* floods than we can turn night into day. The idea . . . is sheer nonsense, as is the notion that floods are more frequent than in the past, and control is limited to what it is possible for man to accomplish against one of the greatest and least controllable phenomena of nature." After careful consideration of the specifications and difficulties of various plans offered the author concludes that "we should not rush blindly into some ill-considered solution of such a far-reaching problem . . . but it must be admitted that the chances of an impartial, honest, nonpolitical study seem rather remote."

Geographers, too, would call our attention to the complications of an easy solu-

tion. With detailed description and proof William Van Royen considers "Prehistoric Droughts in the Central Great Plains" in the October issue of *Geographical Review*. "The recent succession of dry years in the Great Plains and particularly the devastating droughts of 1934 and 1936 have once again focused attention on the fluctuations of precipitation to which our subhumid and semiarid lands in the West are subject. During the first two decades of the twentieth century precipitation in the Great Plains was generally above normal, as this fact in conjunction with the great profits made in wheat farming during the World War tended to obliterate all memory of the drought years of the nineties and other periods of serious moisture deficiency within historical times. There is little doubt in the minds of students of weather and climate that wide borderland areas between humid and arid regions will always be subject to recurrent droughts of varying direction and intensity, such as those experienced in historical times. Also, before the dawn of recorded history droughts occurred, some of which were brief, others evidently very long. . . . It is only human nature that, when the present (or recent?) series of dry years shall be followed by another period of above-normal precipitation, warnings of the past are likely to be forgotten in the face of immediate profits to be obtained. In the long run, such a happy-go-lucky policy will inevitably lead to disastrous results for the people occupying the land, as well as for the land itself."

#### FABRIC OF GOVERNMENT

ONE of the measures widely proposed for reorganization of our government is also a question of political importance at the moment, that is the Supreme Court issue. In spite of the defeat of the President's proposal for a change in the Supreme Court and the political furor over his appointment to the one vacancy, the theoretical question remains: Is the extent of the powers and responsibilities of the federal government

going to be determined democratically by the living generation? To the April issue of this magazine Phillips Bradley contributed an article on "The Constitution, The Court, and The People," discussing the President's court proposal. Other articles also warrant consideration.

"WHAT Can Be Done about the Constitution and the Supreme Court" by Osmond K. Fraenkel was published in the *Columbia Law Review* as long ago as last February, with a careful legal, though not legalistic, review of the various possibilities. In that article the author discounts the probable effectiveness of changes in court personnel on the ground "that Presidents are often mistaken in the men they name. President Wilson appointed Mr. Justice McReynolds in the expectation that, as a justice, he would continue in the policies he had advocated as attorney general; President Coolidge named Mr. Justice Stone, surely not with the expectation that he would become a persistent dissenter." The author might have mentioned other equally convincing examples from the pages of our court history. Among the various possibilities for change, he considers the most desirable to be making the method of constitutional amendment easier. "There is no reason why amendments should not be submitted directly to the people, to be voted upon at special elections held whenever Congress, by two-thirds vote, desired to submit the same. The device of conventions performs no useful function, and merely adds to the expense and delay of the process. There appears also no longer to be any reason why the vote should be counted by states. Majority in popular vote should control, as it now generally does where state constitutions are in question. In this way the people could promptly pass upon the action of the Supreme Court and could rewrite the Constitution step by step so that their will rather than that of the justices will prevail. This is the most logical and satisfactory way

to take the sting out of the much abused power of judicial review."

"The Supreme Court Issue" by Charles A. Beard in the June issue and "The Court Issue: A Reply" by Henry M. Wriston in the October issue of *Social Frontier* present two opposing opinions. I lack the space to reproduce the two articles here with any degree of fairness, but each makes good reading of its kind, besides offering a pleasant exercise in method, to determine when a fact may be regarded as a fact.

"DARE We Call a Federal Convention?" is an interesting article by Malcolm R. Eiselen in the autumn issue of the *North American Review*. He would call a new constitutional convention as a fitting celebration of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of our present Constitution. "Nothing worse could befall the nation . . . than to make this year's celebration merely a complacent eulogy and uncritical exaltation of the Constitution. We are facing not only a glorious past but also a troublous future. The Constitution, so long an article of faith, has again become a vital issue, as it was in the days of Webster and Hayne, of Dred Scott and Bleeding Kansas." He provides a brief agenda, considers the question of the choice of delegates, and discusses means and methods of ratification. "There is no reason why a successful constitutional convention cannot be held. There are compelling reasons, moreover, why it ought to be held in the very near future. The business barometer is rising at the moment, but we have not seen the last of the great depressions. When the next and greater crisis comes, there will be scant opportunity for a calm re-evaluation of our nation's charter."

#### ADMINISTRATION

ALL this has dealt with the theory and fabric of government. What about its administration? What about those individuals in the civil service who administer what is planned? In this aspect of our cor-

porate life we are just about where we were when the Pendleton Act was passed in 1883, and we seem to be getting not much further. Our fundamental lack of trust in government administration is well illustrated in one phrase of a sentence I quoted from "Balance What Budget?" Even at the moment the author was advocating a wide program of government planning and administration, he could not bring himself to trust any government agency with so small a responsibility as to "make a compilation of the known facts, perhaps filling the gaps with some original research." Instead it was to be done by "some authority, preferably a foundation." I am not arguing that his distrust lacks real justification. As a specific example of such justification for distrust I would cite the report on population that was promised to us from the research of the national resources board. It was certainly written and set up in printer's galley. Why has it not appeared? Is it bad politics? Do some persons in authority or position of influence disagree with its evidence and conclusions and therefore conclude that the report ought not be published? Who decides that, after national money has been spent for the making of such an investigation and report, the nation shall not do its own deciding whether it was worth the price paid?

Wisely or foolishly we are embarked on an expanding program of government control and administration. We speak of "the people" doing this and "the government" doing that with little concrete thought about what kind of a man or woman, how able and how honest, is going to do the actual deciding of individual cases, the actual administration of a multitude of detail. The government is going to carry the mails; but who is going to sell me stamps, weigh my packages, and answer my questions, and what is going to be his general intelligence, efficiency, and ability to deal tactfully with an ever-exasperating public? When he makes a costly mistake do I have some mode of redress, or is it just my hard

luck? Can we remedy this situation? Will we?

This question of the civil service has received consideration recently in this magazine. In September Edgar Dawson's "Teaching Administrative Management" argued that the "question of the policy and personnel of our civil service is perhaps the most important matter for the consideration of our country; and it is too much ignored." He urged that "some way must be found to guide some of the best of our secondary-school pupils into the public service as a career." Last month Phillips Bradley contributed "The Civil Service and the Social-Studies Curriculum."

CIVIL Service is discussed in the *American Political Science Review* for August in an article "The 'Merit System' Again" by Kenneth C. Cole. He argues that "there are two radically different ideas as to how efficiency in government is to be secured. One of them places reliance upon legal rules limiting the freedom of administrators in the choice of personnel. The other places faith in strengthening the executive department, on the theory that the conferment of power commensurate with responsibility will call forth its own efficiency response. The significant point to bear in mind here is that these are really mutually exclusive alternatives. It is fatal to the success of either to inject elements proper to the other." Logically, of course, there is no possible quarrel with his statement of the two positions; but, in spite of the all but complete public apathy toward the whole question of civil service, I wonder how many would like to try allowing each public official complete liberty to "hire and fire," calling him only to account for the efficient administration of his office. Not while party government, as it has developed in this country, remains what it is! The author's critical analysis of the *Report of the President's Committee on Administrative Management* (Washington, 1937) indicates that his realistic and his logical opinions are at variance.



## YOUTH OF A NATION

"BRIGHT Students Take Care of Themselves," is an article in the summer issue of the *North American Review* by Leta S. Hollingworth, who thoroughly disapproves of the common adage which she quotes. In popular fashion she discusses the very great wrong done to the unusually gifted child by our educational system, and the consequent impoverishment of our national life. In the October *Atlantic* is "The Learning Process" by Katharine Taylor, headmistress of "Shady Hill," a highly individual and successful school founded in Cambridge some twenty years ago by a group of Harvard professors. This is the first of a series of papers on progressive methods in contemporary education. In the same magazine Marjorie Barstow Greenbie presents a fascinating program for helping and training those unfortunate children who must complain that "It's Hard to Read." Of somewhat similar interest is "Crippled in the Tongue" by Avis D. Carlson in the October *Harpers*.

Bernard DeVoto describes what he read as a boy and what it meant to him in "A Sagebrush Bookshelf" in the same magazine. Perhaps your interest in it ought to be from the viewpoint of a social historian, or as a teacher of youth. It is as social history that he offers it; but your real interest will be in reliving your own youth—with likenesses and differences.

The human interest in the details of writing a book and getting it published is widely recognized and is useful for stimulating classroom understanding of the human problems and human fallibility involved. *Scholastic* of October 2, 1937, reprints from *For Authors Only* (New York: Doubleday Doran, 1931) "The Truth About a Novel" by Kenneth Roberts. The author of *Northwest Passage* addresses himself to controverting the widespread illusion that "(1) a person needs only to write a book in order to become immediately rich and famous; (2) the work is easier and cleaner than other forms of endeavor, and

can be performed anywhere and at any time; (3) little training is needed, and no equipment except a large pad of paper, several pencils, and a place to hang the hat." On the basis of *Arundel*, an earlier, successful work, Mr Roberts tells something of his philosophy of writing a historical novel and how to do it. Of the necessity for a historical novel he is "of the opinion that every novel which deals adequately with any period at all is an historical novel." He began in 1917, and "by the middle of 1928 I had rounded up all available references to Abenaki Indians, histories of most towns in southern Maine, and all known diaries, documents, letters, and biographies dealing with Benedict Arnold's expedition to Quebec and with the assault on the city by American troops in a blinding snowstorm on the last day of 1775. There were, I may say without exaggeration, a lot of these books." Then "these things being assembled, there was nothing left to do" but write the book. Late in December, 1928, on the basis of the first six chapters he got an advance from a publisher and went to Italy to finish the writing. "Each day between January 10th and May 2d, with one exception, was largely spent in the romantic and stimulating occupation of sitting at a desk, facing a blank wall, and evolving out of thin air the fortunes and misfortunes of young Mr. Steven Nason." After a certain amount of necessary checking and rechecking, his manuscript was ready for the interminable galleys. Published in 1930 it was—and is—a real success, but Mr Roberts makes it very clear that it has brought him neither riches nor fame, as those commodities are usually measured.

By reading "The Miracle of Talking by Telephone" by Magzi F. Barrows in the October *National Geographic Magazine* you may escape feeling quite so inferior the next time you are engaged in casual conversation with an adolescent boy, and the conversation, as usual, turns on machinery, inventions, and what not. If he has not already digested that article, you may even tell him a few things.

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# NOTES AND NEWS

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## National Council for the Social Studies

### SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

NOVEMBER 26 and 27, 1937

NEW HOTEL JEFFERSON, ST LOUIS

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 26

#### 10: 00 A.M. General Session

Gold Room

Chairman: C. C. Barnes, First Vice-President.

"Greetings." Henry J. Gerling, Superintendent of Instruction, St Louis.

"Response." R. O. Hughes, Former President of the National Council for the Social Studies, Pittsburgh Public Schools.

"Social Trends and Educational Problems." Alphonse M. Schwitalla, S.J., Dean of the School of Medicine, Saint Louis University.

"Social Studies from the Viewpoint of the Learner." Theophil W. H. Irion, Dean of the School of Education, University of Missouri.

#### 12: 30 P.M. Informal Luncheon Discussions

Private Dining Room No. 2

##### A. "Utilizing Community Resources in Teaching the Social Studies"

Chairman: John P. Dix, Northeast Junior High School, Kansas City.

Speaker: Eldon W. Mason, John Marshall High School, Minneapolis.

Discussion: Sadie Paullus, Hancock Place High School, St Louis, and Arthur H. Moehlman, University School, Ohio State University.

##### B. "Making Local Social-Studies Teachers' Organizations Contribute to Democratic Education"

Private Dining Room No. 3

Chairman: Elizabeth A. Wiley, Senior High School, Jefferson City, President Jefferson City Social Studies Council.

Discussion: John B. Dail, President Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, Public Schools, Detroit, Myrtle Roberts, Public Schools, Dallas, Texas, C. H. McClure, President Missouri Council for the Social Studies, State Teachers College, Kirksville, E. F. Hartford, President Kentucky Council for the Social Studies, duPont Manual Training High School, Louisville.

##### C. "Developing an Awareness of Propaganda Through Current Events"

Private Dining Room No. 4

Chairman: Maynard C. Willis, High School, Poplar Bluff, Missouri.

Speaker: William W. Biddle, State Teachers College, Milwaukee.

Discussion: Ruth West, Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, and Howard Cummings, Clayton High School, St Louis.

##### D. "The Editorial Policy for *Social Education*"

Private Dining Room No. 8

Chairman: Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago.

Speaker: Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Discussion: Julian C. Aldrich, Webster Groves High School, St Louis and William G. Kimmel, Philadelphia.

##### E. "The Status of the Social Studies as Revealed in the New York Survey"

Private Dining Room No. 7

Chairman: Daniel C. Knowlton, New York University.

Speaker: Howard E. Wilson, Harvard Graduate School of Education.

Discussion: Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University, and Everett Keith, High School Supervisor, Missouri State Department of Education.

**2:30 P.M. Sectional Meetings**

- A. "The Social Studies in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association" Crystal Room  
 Chairman: Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin.  
 Speakers: Laura Ullrick, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois, Hazel M. Cornell, Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, G. H. V. Melone, John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri.  
 Discussion: Louis B. Raths, Evaluation Staff, Progressive Education Association, and C. A. Phillips, University of Missouri.
- B. "The Social Studies in the Elementary Program" Ivory Room  
 Chairman: Florence R. Tryon, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee.  
 "Recreational Reading and the Social Studies." Katherine Clarke, Washington University.  
 "The Value of Specimen Units in the Middle Grades." Alice B. Grannis, State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota.  
 "Can We Resolve Some of Our Differences?" Mary G. Kelty, Chicago.  
 Discussion: V. Don Hudson, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri.
- C. "Social-Studies Units in the Eleventh and Twelfth Grades" Private Dining Room No. 1  
 Chairman: W. Francis English, High School, Carrollton, Missouri.  
 "Objectives in Conservation Education." W. P. Beard, Forest Bureau of the United States Department of Agriculture.  
 "International Relations and World Peace." Nelle E. Bowman, Central High School, Tulsa.  
 "Housing." A. W. Troelstrup, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois.  
 Discussion: Lydia N. Glaser, High School, Rochester, Minnesota.

**6:15 P.M. Banquet**Gold Room

- Chairman: Ruth West, Second Vice-President.  
 "The Greatest Educational Experiment in the World." A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota.  
 "The Dilemma of the Social-Studies Teacher." Elmer Ellis, President

**8:30 P.M. Presentation of the Eighth Yearbook:**

- "The Contributions of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies" Crystal Room  
 Chairman: C. C. Barnes, Editor of the Eighth Yearbook, Detroit Public Schools.  
 Speakers: Ernest Horn, University of Iowa, and Rolla M. Tryon, University of Chicago.  
 Discussion: Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota.

**SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 27****9:30 A.M. Sectional Meetings**

- A. "What Are the Principles or Criteria for Organizing Content for the Social Studies?" Ivory Room  
 Chairman: Fremont P. Wirth, George Peabody College for Teachers.  
 Speakers: Paul Hanna, Leland Stanford University, R. E. Swindler, University of Virginia, and Henry Kronenberg, University of Arkansas.  
 Discussion: Howard E. Wilson, Harvard Graduate School of Education.
- B. "Stimulating Interest and Learning in the Social Studies" Crystal Room  
 Chairman: Guy V. Price, Kansas City Teachers College.  
 "Fundamentals of Graphic Methods of Teaching." Daniel C. Knowlton, New York University.  
 "Time Marches On." Edwin W. Pahlow, Ohio State University.  
 "Learning Through Activity in Social-Studies Classes." Roy A. Price, Syracuse University.  
 Discussion: Julie Koch, Roosevelt High School, St Louis.
- C. "Improving the Training of Social-Studies Teachers" Private Dining Room No. 1  
 Chairman: May Lee Denham, Louisiana State University.  
 "The Problem of Improvement in Pennsylvania." Arthur C. Bining, University of Pennsylvania.  
 "The Problem of Improvement in Indiana." Robert LaFollette, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie.  
 "The Problem of Improvement in Illinois." F. S. Rodkey, University of Illinois.  
 Discussion: Charles A. Lee, Washington University.

**12:00 M. Luncheon**Gold Room

- Chairman: Elmer Ellis, President.  
 Business Session.  
 "The Newspaper in Public Affairs." Irving Brant, St Louis *Star-Times*.  
 "Effective Social-Studies Teaching." Harold S. Sloan, Director of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.



### AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

The theme of American Education Week, November 7-13, is "Education and Our National Life." The special topics selected are "Can We Educate for Peace," Sunday, November 7; "Buying Educational Service," Monday; "The Horace Mann Centennial," Tuesday; "Our American Youth Problem," Wednesday; "Schools and the Constitution," Thursday; "School Open House Day," Friday; and "Lifelong Learning," Saturday.

### EDUCATION'S HISTORY NUMBER

The September issue of *Education* is a "history number," edited by Daniel C. Knowlton of New York University. In "History as a Social Study" R. O. Hughes urges a broad interpretation of the subject. Robert I. Adriance in "History and Contemporary Problems" notes the increased emphasis on the present and on social-studies content. He urges history for the early years of high school followed by courses in economics, sociology, and government if possible, or, as a substitute, some fusion course.

In "Citizenship Conscious" Harold Fields describes the citizenship program of a great high school in an underprivileged section of New York City. E. Leigh Mudge argues persuasively for "Humanizing Our National Heroes." Fremont P. Wirth identifies stress on an understanding of the present, greater attention to social and economic history, citizenship preparation and functional values, and frequent use of a topical-unit method as among "Some Recent Trends in the Teaching of History."

H. H. Hahn indicates "How History May Be Made Real to Children in the Grades" through teaching them to read history, using local history, and present situations, creating a school museum, developing time and place relationships, stressing cause and effect relationships, and using dramatization, visual aids, and verbal description.

Arthur C. Bining in "The Teaching of

History in Secondary Schools" comments on the establishment of history as a school subject, the introduction of new subjects, the socialization of education, the use of larger units, fusion programs, and the recent report of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board. This report is also analyzed by the chairman of the Commission, Conyers Read.

H. Emory Wagner describes the Philadelphia program for "Celebrating the Sesquicentennial of the Constitution in the Schools," and Leonard S. Kenworthy discusses "Adolescent America: Emphases in Studying the Constitution" and appends a bibliography for such study.

### A CURRICULUM BY H. G. WELLS

H. G. Wells has worked out a grand scheme for a complete school curriculum insofar as the curriculum consists of "informative content." He presented his proposal to the Educational Science section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science on September 2, 1937. That remarkable address, with a detailed diagram of the proposed curriculum, is available for American readers in the September 4 issue of *School and Society*. Teachers of social studies will be particularly interested in the predominant position given to their subjects. The study of primitive economics and the dawn of human history are placed at the beginning of the young child's education. These are followed on the next level by a consideration of the elementary concepts of history without reference to dates or particular events. On the next higher level surveys of general history and world geography are offered simultaneously. Following these, the child (now an adolescent) begins systematic study of several fields—among the prescribed ones being "personal sociology," "social mechanism," and "economic geography." Finally, on the college level the student is offered a wide range of alternative specialized courses to choose from but must take courses in "ideas of

social organization" and "current world politics." Few readers will agree either with the assumptions or specifications of this curriculum, but equally few will fail to be fascinated with this further fruit of Wells's persistent fecundity.

W. F. M.

### CONSTITUTIONAL PAGEANTS

"Two pageants have been issued recently by the United States Constitutional Sesquicentennial Commission—one, entitled *Our Constitution*, is a historical pageant; the other, *From Many to One*, was designed for use in churches . . . or communities. . . . Copies are available at the Commission's headquarters, Washington, D. C., at 10 cents" (*School Life*).

### CIVICS TEXTBOOKS

Civics textbooks are characteristically biased in a conservative direction, concludes J. J. Pugh in a doctoral dissertation recently completed at Ohio State University and summarized in the September *Clearing House*. In his analysis of a large number of texts, none was found to be biased in favor of any "pattern of social organization that is different from the patterns accepted by the dominant element in our present social order." On the other hand, the majority of the texts were adjudged as tending to prejudice readers in support of the status quo, whereas only a small but promising minority presented an impartial and critical point of view. In his summary article, Dr Pugh quotes several striking passages, generalizes that biases on economic questions are both most frequent and most subtle, and concludes with a statement describing the kinds of civics textbooks now needed.

W. F. M.

### LABOR PROBLEMS

Teachers of contemporary problems should not overlook the material available in the *Monthly Labor Review*, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor (\$3.50 a year;

30 cents a copy. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.). The September issue includes articles on the expanding activities of state labor departments, consumer's co-operation in Cleveland, industrial relations in Denmark, the status of social security at the end of June, old-age pensions in Canada, unemployment and relief, labor organizations and legislation, living costs, and wages and hours.

### CIVICS RESEARCH INSTITUTE

The Civics Research Institute has been conducting a series of studies looking to the development of more general and more intelligent participation in government. Under the leadership of Dr L. J. O'Rourke, chairman of a board of advisers which includes Charles H. Judd, Arthur E. Morgan, Harold G. Moulton, Edward L. Thorndike and George F. Zook, and with the co-operation of schools in all the states, eighth-and ninth-grade community civics classes have been turned into club forums which discuss community problems and secure first-hand information in regard to local conditions and activities. Enthusiastic reports of the results have come in.

There are 50,000 pupils now taking part in the community civics program, either as current or as alumni members. The clubs conduct civic programs on political, economic, and social issues and in which local business men, city officials, and civic organizations actively co-operate. Each club writes reports of its activities for publication in the *Civics Club News Letter*, which is published periodically by the Institute and sent without charge to the participating schools.

This year the program is being extended to additional schools. Copies of the *News Letter* will be sent without charge to any schools interested in co-operating in the program.

The address of the Civics Research Institute is 3506 Patterson Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

### A SOCIAL-STUDIES PROBLEM

A problem-solving project in the Manhasset, New York, high school is described by Thomas C. Barham in the September *Clearing House*. Using government reports the class considered wage statistics and a minimum wage decision in the pocketbook and leather goods industry of Massachusetts—and differed from the decisions of the wage board.

### KNOWLEDGE OF CURRENT EVENTS

With respect to knowledge of current events, children in large cities know more than children in small towns; boys know more than girls; and materials of instruction are less vital than methods of instruction. These are the major findings of a study involving 4,934 elementary—and secondary-school pupils in four states, as reported by L. C. Day in the *Elementary School Journal* for September. The author emphasizes the importance of community background as a factor in children's social learning, and concludes that "until social and economic conditions of smaller communities permit better background opportunities, it is clearly the duty of the schools in such places to compensate for this lack by providing more effective materials and instruction in current events."

W. F. M.

### SAFETY EDUCATION

This department called attention to some recent publications on traffic safety in the April issue (p. 295). Attention to the subject continues to increase. The program of the Grover Cleveland High School, New York City, based in part on Whitney, *Man and the Motor Car*, is described in the October issue of *High Points*, the journal of the city's high-school teachers. The *Journal of Educational Psychology* for September is devoted to safety education, with accounts of the Cleveland, Ohio, and Baltimore, Maryland, school programs.

*Youth at the Wheel*, by John J. Floherty,

has just been published by the Lippincott Company (Philadelphia. Pp. 154. \$1.20 less regular school discount). Car mechanism and equipment, precautions and road rules, and attention to special conditions are included. The book is remarkably well illustrated. Questions are provided at the end.

### BROADCASTING CONFERENCE

The second national conference on broadcasting will be held at the Drake Hotel, Chicago, November 29-December 1. The programs include a general session on the American system of broadcasting to be held on Monday morning under the chairmanship of George F. Zook, and a general session on the appraisal of educational broadcasting to be held Tuesday morning under the chairmanship of Robert M. Hutchins.

### SCHOOL BROADCASTS

The National Education Association, cooperating with the Columbia Broadcasting System, will sponsor four radio programs during the current year. Of special interest to social-studies teachers is the new "Exits and Entrances," a "current events program that reports high spots in the world's news, describes their historical background, and interprets their significance." The hour selected, Monday from two-thirty to three o'clock, EST, makes the program available to classrooms in the eastern, central, and Pacific time zones.

Two programs called "Our American Schools" will be broadcast, one on Saturday mornings at eleven o'clock, EST, the other on Wednesday evenings at six o'clock, EST.

### MOVIES BIBLIOGRAPHY

*What Shall We Read About the Movies?* Is a carefully annotated list of books and periodicals concerned with various phases of motion pictures, compiled by William Lewin, chairman of the motion picture committee of the department of secondary



education of the NEA. It is available, as are the titles listed, through Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 138 Washington Street, Newark, New Jersey.

### "STUDENT LIFE"

Beginning with an October issue the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association will publish *Student Life*, concerned with the various activities of secondary-school students. The new publication takes over and expands the work of *Student Leader*. Beginning in October the *Bulletin* of the Department will appear eight times a year rather than five.

### STUDENT GOVERNMENT

As a direct result of the new emphasis on training in character and citizenship through student participation in the management of school affairs, the National Association of Student Officers was organized in 1930 by Superintendent Willis A. Sutton of Atlanta, Georgia, who was at that time president of the National Education Association. The purpose of this organization is to serve as a clearing house for the exchange of ideas and information among the students of the country who are engaged in co-operative government of their schools. NASO functions under the guidance of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association. It now has a membership of over one thousand student councils and other forms of self-government organizations which represent a total of over half a million students.

Student councils and other forms of self-government organizations in the secondary schools may affiliate with NASO by paying the annual membership fee of \$1.50 and sending a copy of their constitution, or, if there is no written constitution, a short and concise statement of the program of self-government which the school has developed.

The services of NASO to its members this year consist of three copies of each issue

of the monthly magazine, *Student Life*, which is the official organ carrying information on student government and related activities; a packet of material on student government which sells to non-members for 50 cents; a report on the annual convention of student government officers which was held at Detroit during the summer meeting of the National Education Association; a bibliography on student government; and a copy of a survey of student participation in school government and control in eighty-one typical high schools. Address the Executive Secretary, National Association of Student Officers, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

### SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE LOWER GRADES

It is unlikely that any considerable proportion of the readers of *Social Education* are in direct contact with the problems of teaching in the kindergarten and primary grades. It might, therefore, come as a surprise to many to learn of the remarkable changes that have taken place within the past few years with respect to the curriculum of the lower elementary grades. Most notable of the newer trends is the increased attention being given to guiding young children in social experience and social learning. Teachers of social studies on higher levels who wish to acquaint themselves with the social-studies curricular trends in the primary grades should not fail to consult the October issue of *Childhood Education*, which contains three pertinent articles. Henry Harap declares that "the early elementary grade curriculum has progressed farther than any other educational level," and commends particularly its focusing on socially real situations. James S. Tippetts considers those curricular trends that point "toward a more democratic citizenship." Paul R. Hanna cites in detail specific learning situations recommended for use in teaching young children about home, school, and community.

W. F. M.

## AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM

"The Activity Program in New York City" is described by John J. Loftus, assistant superintendent of schools, in the October *Curriculum Journal*. To the Division of Elementary Schools, which has been conducting experimentation with 40,000 children under the charge of 1,000 teachers, "the 'Activity Program' is not a program of manual arts, but a new type of curriculum based on *experimental learning*. Activities may be social, civic, intellectual, or emotional, as well as manual." Ten types of activity have been especially recommended: the discussion or conference period, the excursion, visual aids, research, dramatization, planning and sketching, performance or construction, interpretation, sharing, and evaluating. Though teachers unfamiliar with the techniques of the program are warned to proceed cautiously, the New York City experiment will continue for six years, making possible comparison with pupils who have come through the elementary school under different procedures.

## SOCIAL STUDIES AND STUDENT TEACHING

The student-teaching program at Hampton Institute (Hampton, Virginia) was reorganized in 1935-36 so that the social studies were given a position of primary emphasis in the training and supervised experience of prospective elementary teachers. Each student prepared a unit of work in the social studies in accordance with the suggestions given in the Virginia State course, and then taught the unit under the joint supervision of the staff teacher in the training school and the Institute's instructor in social-studies methods and materials. The innovation has had several desirable results upon both the training-school pupils and the student teachers in the opinion of Elizabeth W. Chandler and Dorah M. Herrington, who report on it in the May issue of *Educational Administration and Supervision*.

W. F. M.

## HISTORY REFERENCE COUNCIL

The History Reference Council will publish ten eight-page bulletins during 1937-38, including a Latin liturgical play with translation and a modern transcription of the music; a history of the boot and shoe industry in early America; other numbers on labor; an account of an early American town meeting; and issues devoted to the care of the aged, Spanish-American music, and some aspect of international organization.

The general membership rate has been reduced from five dollars to three. There are also library and school memberships. Address the History Reference Council, 10 Longfellow Park, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

## PERSONAL

DeWitt S. Morgan, who was president of the National Council of the Social Studies in 1932, formerly head of history and then principal of Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, has been appointed superintendent of schools at Indianapolis.

Honorary degrees have recently been conferred on Ruth West by Reed College, and on Harold O. Rugg by the University of Tasmania.

Edgar B. Wesley has been promoted to a full professorship in the University of Minnesota.

J. W. Wrightstone, formerly research associate at Teachers College, Columbia University, is now assistant professor of education and associate director of the evaluation of school broadcasts at the Ohio State University.

Philip Van Ness Myers, long a professor in the University of Cincinnati and author of several school texts, died on September 20 at the age of 91.

Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for January should be sent by December 1.

Contributors to this issue include Elmer Ellis, W. F. Murra, and H. E. Wilson.

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## BOOK REVIEWS

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**Our Ways of Living: Ways of Living in Many Lands.** Pp. x, 305. \$1.16. **Our Ways of Living: Where Our Ways of Living Come From.** Pp. xii, 474. \$1.28. **Our Ways of Living: Living in the Age of Machines.** Pp. xii, 586. \$1.48. **Our Ways of Living: Richer Ways of Living.** Pp. xii, 666. \$1.52. All by Howard E. Wilson, Florence H. Wilson, and Bessie P. Erb. New York: American Book, 1937.

In this set of books an excellent unified curriculum for grades three through six is provided for the teacher, centered on the topic "Our Ways of Living." As stated in the foreword, the materials are taken from history, geography, government, economics, and sociology. The materials are not new, but they are compiled with a new challenge, and many of them are introduced for the first time in the intermediate field. Each unit is a group of short stories which lead to a broader concept, stated in a brief generalizing story and summing up for the reader the ideas and social insights he is supposed to have gleaned.

The first volume, *Ways of Living in Many Lands*, is along the line of work most often presented in the third grade and, though not novel in its approach, is a very attractive book.

The second volume, *Where Our Ways of Living Come From*, is the most interesting from the point of view of the rearrangement of history to show the development of industries and life. The stories of the first unit, "History Hill," as in the Massachusetts course of study, give a bird's-eye view of history from the days of primitive

man through those of George Washington. Of necessity the other units, as farming, the use of tools, the development of trade, are based on history too. The descriptions of the development of pottery, weaving, and other industrial processes are simple, clear, and extremely interesting. We find here too a definite unit for teaching geographic principles, which are generally overlooked in fusion courses. It includes the scientific account of the origin and movements of the earth, map reading, and a study of the plains, mountains, and rivers of the world. To enhance the interest, a great part of it is written from the point of view of two imaginary children, Jane and Peter. As several able and experienced teachers have collaborated in these volumes, the reviewer hesitates to raise the question as to whether this may not divert the child's thinking from the subject to the narrative, and whether the direct questions might better be raised by the teacher or pupil than by the fictitious parent or child. While there is perhaps no danger that children will believe rivers really talk, there is some question that fiction and fact may be confused (for instance in the story of the Clermont, vol. III).

The third volume, *Living in the Age of Machines*, begins with two units frequently studied in the fifth grade, communication and transportation. These are worked out very completely and will be a great aid to the teacher who has only a meager course of study to follow. The units on machines and the use of power are also very well done. In fact the accounts of the industrial processes



are an important feature of the series. The effect of the machine age on cities gives an opportunity for more geography as well as lessons in community civics.

*Richer Ways of Living* includes material frequently found in civic courses for the ninth grade. Several of the units have enough of the human appeal in them to interest sixth-grade children, as "The Story of Friendliness" and "Medicine and Health," but the more abstract units on "Things of Beauty" and "Our Government To-Day" will require skillful teaching.

The pupil activities throughout the series are much to the point. There has been no effort to drag in every conceivable one, but each has learning value and is practical in its execution. While an able teacher would lead the children to suggest the same activities, the less competent teacher will be glad to have them put so directly to her class. The bibliographies are also very well chosen and useful for supplementary reading.

In this series one has a skillful organization of materials, based on a cumulative theme, embodying the accepted principles established for the social studies. The materials are selected for their functional value in current living. The social and economic trends, the application of science and technology to industry and life, problems of community living, the satisfactions derived from art, literature, music, and beauty of nature are all emphasized. One may infer that under the guidance of Dr Howard Wilson and his able collaborators we are seeing one of the best curriculums offered in social studies for the intermediate grades. Yet there is a question as to whether the child is gaining accurate knowledge of the background of contemporary life. Can he pass from primitive man, through Egypt, Greece, Rome, medieval days, Columbus, Priscilla, George Washington, and the Constitution and have a clear idea of what it is all about? To be sure he runs the gamut of these various peoples again under the unit on farming, and again under "Making

Goods with Hand Tools." The authors by frequent time-line devices endeavor to keep their readers clear as to the sequence. Would the child have a better understanding of his heritage, if he had a more intensive and thorough study of some one of these earlier peoples, and the environment which shaped their method of living? This does not mean that our present economic and social life would be ignored, because only by constant contrast with the contemporary scene can he reach an understanding of either present or past. The Houston, Texas, curriculum for the fifth grade has done something of this sort through the life of the middle ages. The Bruner-Smith Social Studies Series for the intermediate grades, while along the same line as this series, gives more space to the life of the peoples of the past, because it does not attempt to cover so much ground.

In such a series as this there are bound to be serious gaps of knowledge. For instance when the building-up of our government is described, it is taken for granted that the reader knows about the colonies. John Smith and Daniel Boone are casually mentioned, implying an earlier acquaintance. The chapters on geography also seem to assume a background knowledge of European countries and North America. The chapter in volume III on foreign cities tends to resolve itself into the old place-name geography, and that on American cities only a little less so. One realizes that much of the accustomed learning of the intermediate grades must be postponed to make room for material on the machine age, group living, trade and money economy, all of which are vital, but foundations in history and geography can not be assumed.

Since the intermediate grades still present the most unsettled part of the social-studies program, teachers will gladly welcome this ably conceived plan and organization. It is well adapted to follow the generally accepted program of the primary grades. There is danger that it may infringe on the curriculum of the upper grades and co-ordination with them will be essential, if this series is

adopted as the basis of the intermediate curriculum.

RACHEL M. JARROLD

State Teachers College  
Trenton, N. J.

**The Making of American Civilization.** By Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. xv, 932, xliii. \$2.20.

A *History of the United States* that was notable itself for changing school emphases in American history gives way to an account of *The Making of American Civilization*. But the authors cling to the belief that realistic knowledge of the society in which boys and girls live "can best be acquired by what is called 'the historical approach'" (p. v). For "how can anyone hope to . . . comprehend the issues of currency, banking, tariff, foreign trade, agriculture, the use of natural resources, and the interpretation of the Constitution, without knowledge of how they arose? The American people have been struggling with them for more than a century. To discuss these matters merely in the light of today, or of the past few years, is to discuss them superficially and to encourage the formation of frivolous judgments. . . . The very statement of contemporary problems raises controversial issues and a rational treatment calls for knowledge of relevant facts, skill in research, and the judicial temper. . . . When educators lay emphasis on realistic knowledge and on the skill and judicial temper which characterize civilized men and women, they are bound to make use of history taught as history and not as haphazard commentary on current events" (p. v f).

The rest of the preface is equally challenging in its description of the broad kind of content needed "to encompass the whole of civilization," summarizing the personal background out of which the volume was written, proposing to introduce the great issues faced by the nation, and concluding: "We have sought to avoid the unreasoning sentimentality that glosses over reality and

the passions of partisan criticism that distort the comprehension of reality."

The volume comprises thirty-five chapters grouped in nine parts. Part I, "A New Nation Is Built in North America," carries the story through the Revolution, in 154 pages. Parts II, III, and IV, "The American Republic Strengthens Its Foundations," "The Republic Expands and Becomes Democratic," and "Social Conflict Shakes the Republic," continue through the period of Reconstruction. In the remaining 45 per cent of the total space five themes are developed: "The Industrial Revolution Covers the Continent," "American Interest in Foreign Affairs Becomes World-Wide," "Democracy Engages in Social Reform," "World War Bursts in upon Reforming Democracy," and "Democracy Resumes Its Quest for the Ideal."

The emphasis on civilization rather than on politics alone is attested by the repeated and more than perfunctory attention to religion, the press, education, literature, science, crafts and the arts, and the status and activities of women. Westward expansion and its influence, the growth of business and industry, the labor movement, and the rise of reform movements of various kinds, are developed with some fullness. The final paragraph concerns the announcement last February of the President's plan for changes in the judiciary.

The volume is generously and freshly illustrated with prints, photographs, and many imaginative pictures. The twenty-six maps, half of which are in color, are adequate save in the first third of the text. That of the original grants is highly misleading, and those opposite pages 81, 141, 151, and 225 fail to note important controversies.

The pedagogical aids include excellent bold-face interpretative headings, review questions, stimulating topics for discussion, and usable research topics for which specific references are provided. The references are mature, ranging through a great many volumes mostly more appropriate to college

than high-school classes; the lists omit much excellent material suitable for secondary schools, and provide little for even average students. A few novels are suggested, though not for the recent period. A topical syllabus is available.

For those young citizens who can "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest"—and for their teachers—these distinguished historians have provided a summary of the American heritage, and an introduction to the problems of today, that should be widely welcomed.

E. M. H.

**Biographical Sketches in American History.**

By Lucian Lamm. New York: College Entrance Book, 1937. Pp. v, 168. 60c.

The primary purpose of this book is to assist in preparing for college entrance or Regents examinations. It has value for the secondary-school pupil who wishes to supplement the usual American history review book with another emphasizing factual, non-interpretative biographies. The 168 pages present 131 biographies of Americans in many fields of activity including industry, social service, the arts and sciences, education, literature, and invention. Space limitations restrict each biography to a highly condensed account. Though Jefferson requires three pages, the average space allotment is between one and two pages. The first paragraph of each biographical account attempts to appraise the importance of the subject in history, and at the end there is a brief bibliography helpful for a more intensive investigation of the character. For references to material published after 1930, however, the bibliographies are weak. The book contains more than twenty full- and half-pages of charts, photographs, diagrams, and maps.

THOMAS C. BARHAM, JR

Memorial Place High School  
Manhasset, New York

**Elements of Economics.** By Richard Feier. New York: College Entrance Book, 1937. Pp. v, 311, xix, rev. ed. in paper. 60c.

This volume is presented as "a readable and rapid survey" of economics, for use in daily preparations and for examinations. Its thirty-three chapters cover the conventional topics and include treatments of labor, railroad, and agricultural problems, socializing, the consumer and standards of living, and "some recent problems." The appendix includes material on the New Deal, together with a bibliography and recent Regents examinations. The book is carefully organized for learning with thought questions, review exercises, and stress on definitions.

E. M. H.

**The Teaching of History in English Schools.**

By Olive E. Shropshire. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 671. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1936. Pp. viii, 189. \$2.10.

This study, written after a year's investigation in England, treats elementary and secondary schools and teacher-training institutions, together with those phases of the work of the universities and university colleges that are directly related to these three main subjects. The chapter devoted to each of these items begins with a brief historical review of the introduction and growth of history in the curriculum, followed by a more extended discussion of its status at the present time. It appears that history has had an uphill fight to gain a place on a par with classical or scientific subjects. Even today, although the English show a widespread interest in history, there seems to be a good deal of doubt about its utility as a school subject, especially in the public schools, and not more than two periods a week are devoted to it. This is attributed in part to the conservatism of those trained in the classical tradition and in part to the prevalence of the belief in mental discipline and the belief that the classics, mathematics, and science have greater disciplinary value. Another conservative tendency noted is the



practice of ending history somewhere between 1815 and 1914 and avoiding recent history and current events on the ground that controversial issues ought to have no place in the school. Exceptions are noted, however, and there is a movement to develop recent history and current events as a training in citizenship. While until recently little but English history has been taught, European and world history are now receiving consideration. In secondary schools the external examinations set by the universities or the educational authorities have had the same tendency to limit both content and methods to fixed grooves that college board or Regents examinations have had in the United States. English teachers are described as "conspicuously well prepared academically" (p. 115) but as having only a limited degree of professional training. The author considers the work of the training colleges, which give a two-year course in preparation for elementary teaching, more satisfactory than the work of the universities and university colleges, where a year of professional training is given to students who have already taken the bachelor's degree. The emphasis on practice-teaching under supervision is commended. In discussing the supervision of teachers in service, it is stated that a peculiar advantage of history teachers in England is that "the suggestions and recommendations for the guidance of teachers of history come from experts—men and women who have had years of the most thorough and intensive university training in history and who have had actual experience in the teaching of history in the field" (pp. 121, 122). Is it possible that this is not the case in the United States? Academic freedom in one sense is almost complete; courses and methods are not prescribed, and the teacher is "free to decide what he shall teach and how he shall teach it" (p. 121), except that schools receiving grants from the Board of Education must satisfy His Majesty's inspectors. In the sense in which the term is more commonly used in the United States,

however, there are more limitations. A number of cases are cited of attacks on teachers who have ventured to express themselves freely on controversial issues. The author's conclusion is that the degree of freedom in this respect varies according to locality; in many places it is high.

The English school system is so complicated that it is impossible in a brief review to comment on the developments in the various types of schools. The use of many English educational terms not always explained in the context may perplex some American readers. The explanations of such terms as public school and council school does not appear until they have been used many times. Since there is no index a few cross references would have been useful. The appendix contains a number of such syllabi, examination papers, dramatizations as are used in English schools.

DONALD L. MCMURRY

Russell Sage College

**High School Teachers' Methods.** By Charles Elmer Holley. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1937. Pp. viii, 514. \$3.00.

The twenty-seven chapter headings on which the discussion in this volume centers contain or suggest most of the major aspects of methods of teaching with which beginning teachers need to be familiar. Phases of the work of the teacher such as managing the classroom, maintaining discipline, motivating learning activities, making assignments, questioning, providing for individual differences, conducting the formal class period, using the laboratory and library, measuring the results of teaching, and selecting and arranging the subject matter are interestingly and effectively treated in a number of chapters. Methods proper are considered under such categories as teaching procedures, the development lesson, Morrison teaching cycle for science units, problem solving, exposition as method, the review, directed study, group-study plan, individual instruction, the socialized recitation, the project method, and

the conference method. In his discussion of these methods the author outlines the technique involved in most of them and points out the strong and weak aspects of each. Few concrete examples are given.

Inasmuch as the volume is intended for use in methods classes, it is equipped with certain teaching aids. A list of pre-test questions precedes the discussion in each chapter, and a number of review questions and exercises follow it. Suggested reading is amply provided for most of the chapters. The simplicity of style and the triteness of the ideas suggest that the volume is intended for inexperienced teachers.

On the whole Professor Holley has produced a well rounded and no doubt an extremely helpful volume, especially to those unacquainted with the job of teaching. The doubting Thomases, however, will not greet the volume with the same acclaim as the unsophisticated neophytes. To them it will seem too authoritarian. They will object to the extensive use that the author makes of such words as "should" and "must." They will maintain that objective evidence does not justify the use of these words in a multitude of cases. Those who have read Ernest Horn's recent volume entitled *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (New York: Scribner, 1937) will probably feel that writers in the field of general methods should be asked to cite some objective evidence for their "musts" and "shoulds."

R. M. TRYON

The University of Chicago

**Teaching High-School Students to Read. A Study of Retardation in Reading.** By Stella S. Center and Gladys L. Persons. New York: Appleton-Century, 1937. English Monograph No. 6 of the National Council of Teachers of English. Pp. xviii, 167. \$2.25.

This book gives an account of an extensive project in the Theodore Roosevelt High School in New York City to reduce retardation in reading. The authors, who have had many years of experience as teachers and

supervisors of English in the public schools, are entirely qualified for such an undertaking, and their monograph is a concrete addition to the mounting lists of remedial reading studies. It does not set forth any new theories concerning remedial reading. Instead, it illustrates what can be done provided there is sympathetic support from the administration, a highly trained and well organized staff of skillful teachers, and the necessary equipment. An interesting series of forty-two tables is well worth the study of teachers and supervisors in secondary schools. Table xxx records percentages of failure among the students who had the benefits of the remedial reading instruction described. In the nine subject-matter units indicated the per cent of failure is, by and large, higher in the third and fourth terms of sequential instruction than in the first and second. It is pointed out that two factors cause this condition—the usual learning plateau and the increasingly difficult subject matter. Yet it is surprising that the increase in these failures is not greater. This would seem to indicate the functioning of the instruction provided. The per cent of failures in English over a period of four terms was considerably less than that in civics and economics (grouped as one item in the table) over the corresponding terms.

Chapter vii, "The Leisure Reading of Retarded Readers," should give some food for thought to the social-studies teacher who requires collateral readings and reports. After a consideration of what this chapter sets forth he may reject the ancient formulae of "so many pages, so many authors, so many reports." Also the social-studies teacher in search of a definite procedure to follow in order to improve the reading abilities of the pupils in his classes will find some suggestions in this book. If he is already familiar with remedial reading practices he will find this monograph of unusual value, especially when he comes to evaluate his own methods. It does not set up, however, a program to be taken up readily by the smaller

high schools with all their limitations of programming, staff, and equipment.

HALL BARTLETT

Garden City High School  
Garden City, New York

**The Making of Maryland.** By Elmer Green. Baltimore, Maryland: E. & M. Green, 1934. Pp. x, 373.

**My Maryland.** By Beta Kaessmann, Harold Randall Manakee, and Joseph L. Wheeler. Ginn, 1934. Pp. vi, 424. \$1.32.

**Maryland and France, 1774-1789.** By Kathryn Sullivan. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1936. Pp. xi, 181. \$2.00.

Although the first book has been written primarily for children of Maryland it can well be used throughout our land in the study of the larger problems, English colonization in America and early colonial life. The narrative, presented logically as well as chronologically, is good both in content and in form, in comparison with the average history written for children. The pages are full of information expressed in simple, brief, yet meaningful language. Many facts come from primary sources, from accurate reproductions, and from correct maps. While some of the illustrations are purely imaginative many are unquestionably authentic. The maps, although artistically decorated and attractively colored, express truths with their latitude and longitude lines and scales of miles. The author has quite faithfully, yet not completely, held to the truth, avoided generalizations, and made little attempt to indoctrinate the reader. A consistent effort has been made to show the close relationship between conditions in Maryland and England. The appendix is especially valuable for this. The tests or check ups at the close of the chapters are to be regretted, as they tend to handicap the reader in that they emphasize remembering rather than thinking and to predetermine the essentials of the chapter.

The second volume has been written, so the preface states, to meet the need of an adequate textbook in the teaching of Maryland history in grades four, five, six, and seven. As a textbook the authors seem to have taken little note of the more recent emphasis in the teaching of history and of the more progressive point of view in education. The unit or topical organization has been followed in an interrupted chronological plan of development. Each story in the various units has a preview of a few lines giving basic facts and defining problems, followed by a wordy and sometimes illusive elaboration of the problem and by a brief conclusion that reiterates the thoughts of both the preview and discussion. The child is thus indoctrinated as to the main thought of the chapter and reassured in the conclusion of what he should have found. The authors have attempted to crowd into a small volume three hundred years of Maryland history. This might have been done to greater advantage and with less unscholarly and contradictory statements about people and events had there not been a superabundance of words used and had there been a greater opportunity given the child to find the truth for himself. Although the book contains three hundred illustrations and maps, fully a third are of little value to the child as a source of information or as a means of visualization because of size and over-crowded details. Most of the stories are followed by suggested activities that might well be omitted. Activities are of greatest educational value if initiated by the teacher, if not by the child, and if used as a means of enriching the child's concept rather than as a stimulation to memory. The suggested reading list for teachers at the close of the book is well worthwhile for any teacher of Maryland history.

The purpose of the third volume is to present a systematic exposition of the contacts made between Maryland and the French during the period of the American Revolution and Confederation. The author has grouped her findings in a chronological



order under seven headings (1) Maryland: A British Colony and a Sovereign State; (2) Maryland's Contacts with France before 1778; (3) Supplying the French and Spanish with Flour; (4) Maryland and the French Ministers; (5) Maryland and the Soldiers of France; (6) A Maryland Agent in France, Holland, and England; and (7) The Decline of French Influence in Maryland. She has based her study on three main groups of sources, those of the history of the United States during the American Revolution and the Confederation, those devoted to a study of Maryland throughout the same period, and those that deal with the foreign interests of that state. The study is not an interpretation of Maryland's foreign relations or an expression of personal opinion but a straightforward and scholarly presentation of unusual information ably substantiated by footnotes and direct quotations from authentic sources. The annotated bibliography covering thirty pages and classified as manuscripts, printed documents, biographical material, monographs and special studies, and newspapers has value for the research student as well as the teacher of history. The monograph, although dealing primarily with Maryland-French relations, could be used to advantage in the study of the American Revolution and Confederation. Furthermore because of the sanity of presentation and simplicity and directness of language it could be of interest and importance to the student of social history in the high school as well as the college.

HARRIET A. BADER

State Teachers College  
Towson, Maryland

**No Other White Men.** By Julia Davis. New York: Dutton, 1937. Pp. 242. \$2.00.

Here, interestingly told, is the story of Lewis and Clark's exploration of the Far West. Suitable for children below the junior high school, it is an adventure story—and a good one—with no attempt to drive home the wider implications of the land hunger and the Indian relations that were

to continue to color our history for many generations. The maps by Caroline Gray are excellent, with a clear distinction maintained between the landmarks as they were then and the state divisions, towns, and cities that lie in that vast region today.

**South after Gettysburg: Letters of Cornelia Hancock from the Army of the Potomac, 1863-1865.** Ed. by Henrietta Stratton Jaquette. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1937. Pp. xiii, 173. \$2.00.

This is a running account of the matter-of-fact adjustment that most normal young persons make to the extraordinary circumstances of war, with some equally matter-of-fact description of how a young Quakeress of twenty-three made herself useful in various crises, by providing a barrel of coffee in the midst of chaos, sorting the wounded from the dead, dressing wounds, and writing dying men's last letters home. She joined the army after Gettysburg, dressed the wounds of the Battle of the Wilderness, served at White House, saw some of Sheridan's raids, and entered Richmond with the victorious army. Yet the book is in no sense a military view of our Civil War. The writer of the letters over and over again remarked on how little she knew of what was happening, in spite of the fact that she stood all the time in the very midst of events. Her conclusions in the matter, though, were entirely sound: that "war is a hellish way of settling a dispute"; that a battle instead of being a "glorious success" was in fact "death, disaster, and retreat"; and that "I do not care what anyone says, war is humbug."

**John D. Rockefeller.** By B. F. Winkelman. Philadelphia: Winston, 1937. Pp. viii, 310. \$1.50.

His recent death makes timely an account of the life of a great man, who was not, however, a typical Sunday School hero in all the aspects of his personality. Put together out of the well known materials, it is wholly in accord with the present sympa-

thetic attitude of the world toward the man it once hated cordially; and there is no discussion of the years of that hatred or of the publicity agent, Ivy Lee, who played so large a part in the rehabilitation of the Rockefeller reputation. Nevertheless the book will probably be useful for younger readers, if accompanied by some admonition to try to read between the lines.

K. E. C.

**Men and Resources: North America and its Place in World Geography.** By Joseph Russell Smith. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1937. Pp. xiii, 729. \$2.20.

The book is regional in its geographic treatment of North America. Realizing the impossibility of incorporating in one volume all the information about every area the author has suggested a "type study" method which is vivid, practical, and concise. Recognizing the danger of using any one place as typical he has met the problem with well chosen illustrations of other areas having similar, though not identical, conditions (p. 626, Puerto Rico). By following this plan, detail necessary for interest has been supplemented by specific reading references (p. 277) incorporated in the text and at the end of each chapter. Comparisons with other areas are factual and may offer just criticism of American methods (p. 174, European conservation) or may express a fine appreciation of American achievements (p. 275-276, development of the Ohio River). Thoughtful, busy teachers can not fail to appreciate the help offered in graphic illustrations (p. 299), varied maps and graphs, discussions of current developments (TVA, p. 133, national parks, p. 164, education in Mexico, p. 679), and the practical post-chapter activity problems entitled "Put your minds to work." Reliably factual, vital, and dramatic, the book is realistic, without being discouragingly pessimistic, in pointing out the problems of North America. Throughout, one is heartened by the constructive thought of the author which is, in fact, so convincing

that one may lose sight of his admonition (p. viii) "Do not, I beg, let this book be the entire material of the course."

CLARA HINZE

San Jose State College  
San Jose, California

**The Glittering Century.** By Phillips Russell. New York: Scribner, 1936. Pp. 326. \$3.50.

Whether the years 1700 to 1815 constituted a "century" that was truly brilliant many will doubt. It must be conceded, however, that this sketch is concerned with the surface glitter of the period—with conspicuous personages (by no means neglecting their weaknesses), with gossip, and very often with glistening decay. The account is necessarily superficial and incomplete, for it touches on all of Christian Europe and the English colonies in America and India. It is not well rounded, for it neglects the common people, and mentions but does not develop the rise of the middle class, the beginnings of scientific agriculture, the steady progress of capitalism, and the beginnings of large-scale industrial enterprise. The familiar philosophers and a few familiar literary figures are mentioned, but scientists, musicians, and artists are all but ignored. The glitter of personalities has blinded the author to more substantial development in political organization, in economic activity, and in some growing sense of social responsibility. The volume is readable but too slight and impressionistic to meet the needs of teachers and students.

E. M. H.

**The Third Reich.** By Henri Lichtenberger, trans. and ed. by Koppel S. Pinson. New York: Greystone Press, 1937. Pp. xi, 392. \$3.00.

The author of this extraordinarily interesting study of Nazi Germany is an outstanding French publicist. It was written in an effort to give his countrymen a more objective understanding of events in Germany. Himself long intimately acquainted with pre-war and pre-Nazi Germany, he is

eminently equipped to write a dispassionate account not only for his countrymen, but for everyone interested in the program and practices of National Socialism. The result is not disappointing.

It is impossible in a brief review to do more than suggest the elements in this analysis. Perhaps the best part of his book is that which explains the underlying causes of National Socialism in Germany. He, unlike many of his countrymen, looks realistically at the results of the Treaty of Versailles, not merely in terms of the economic strangulation of Germany, but as factors in crystallizing the emotional frustrations of a great nation around the nexus of repudiation. He also indicates the shortcomings of the Social-Democratic party as the wielder of power (even if, for most of the period of the Weimar Republic, in coalition). More academic than realistic, on the whole unequipped with leaders capable of assuming responsible representation of the true German temper of the 1920's, it left open to Hitler the very path to power which in the event proved the only one on which the German nation could be consolidated. M. Lichtenberger's portrait of Hitler is interesting and eminently fair. With unusual impartiality he gives him higher rating as a statesman than do most foreign publicists. His treatment of the National Socialistic party in power and of its foreign and domestic policies is also on the whole sound. The weakest part of the study is on the economic side. Neither agricultural reforms nor industrial policy are treated with thoroughness. Some of the more important legislation is altogether omitted from mention, and there is a tinge of academic orthodoxy which is not based on searching appraisal of the facts or very acute analysis of trends. The same defect touches also the treatment of the party organization and its relations to the mass of the people in Germany. In spite of these defects, however, this volume is one of the most useful which has yet appeared on Nazi Germany—especially so as it is filtered through the

eyes of an intelligent and unemotional Frenchman.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Amherst College

**The English Coöperatives.** By Sydney R. Elliott. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. viii, 212. \$3.00.

A type of economic organization which conducts over one-tenth of all of the retail trade in England, with an annual turnover of about a billion dollars, is not negligible. The consumers' co-operative movement of England does this, and in so doing it reaches into one in every three British homes, controls wholesale and productive federations with an annual trade of a half billion dollars and employs an army of 300,000 persons. It is the task of this book to describe the development of this colossal movement through almost a century, placing it in the history of British working class institutions of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Not since the publication of Sidney and Beatrice Webb's *The Consumers' Coöperative Movement* almost two decades ago have the British co-operatives been so satisfactorily analyzed for the general reader. Moreover, what has not been previously available in a popular, non-technical account, is the story of the post-war growth of co-operation challenged by the forces of private business operating through trade boycotts or through the petty governmental restrictions which favor private enterprise.

Business development in England, as in other industrial countries, since the World War has been marked by efforts at price stabilization through business combination and through tariff protection and trade quotas. It is Mr Elliott's thesis that the co-operative movement is the only guardian of the consumer against the high prices of the trusts; the state has acquiesced in these hitherto illegal practices of the monopolies by recognizing their acts as *fait accompli* and legalizing them. It has been equally deaf toward consumer protests against and complacent toward the demands of business



for tariff protection. The co-operatives have been a force for modifying the effects on the consumer of both policies; this they have done by competing with the monopolies through production of like goods and services, by developing a flexible price policy and by reducing operating costs through more efficient methods. Thus the movement has been enabled to distribute to its members surpluses of a billion dollars in the past decade and to give marked protection against adulteration and misdescription of goods, false weights and measures, and expensive credit. Large retail societies are prepared to outfit the baby and to provide everything during his life, a funeral at his death, and collective life insurance for the heirs.

The power of the movement rests upon two ideas: producing for a "known market" rather than a speculative one, and "taking the profit element out of price." Its method is that of democracy, both of ownership and of control. Its by-products are consumer culture and education, for co-operation is not only an efficient business machine but is also a way of life. Its future task in solving the economic dilemmas of capitalism and in restoring genuine democracy is presented by Mr Elliott in an attractive and persuasive form.

ELINOR PANCOAST

Goucher College

**Billions for Defense.** By William T. Stone and Ryllis Alexander Goslin. Headline Book No. 9. New York: Foreign Policy Assoc., 1937. Pp. 46. 25c.

**Economics and Peace. A Primer and a Program.** The Primer by Marc A. Rose, and the Program by a group of Thirty-four Economists. World Affairs Books No. 18. New York: National Peace Conference, 1937. Pp. 63. 75c.

In its Headline Books the Foreign Policy Association renders a service to leaders of adult-study groups, to high-school teachers,

and to all of us who enjoy having statistics served up in the form of animated pictorial diagrams. The splendid research facilities of the FPA give the same dependability to the popularly presented Headline Books as to the *Foreign Policy Reports*.

*Billions for Defense* has eight full pages of pictorial diagrams. These compare current expenditures for armament with what was spent before the World War. Today the nations are spending four times as much as they did then. Especially are the nations increasing their air forces, even as they recognize that there is no effective defense against attack from the air by an enemy.

The Committee on Economics and Peace wrestled with the practical problems of making the ideals of peace work in the everyday business world of trade and commerce. In their report, *Economics and Peace*, they set forth definite recommendations as to how this nation, or any nation, ought to conduct its business life so as to minimize the risk of war. "Prosperity of nations works toward peace, on the whole; . . . temptations born of economic distress are . . . powerful forces in stimulating war" (p. 6). "Trade is, of course, the oldest form of contact between nations, and it still is the basic international relation. . . . Trade relations must therefore be the major source of opportunities for international friction" (p. 10). "Somewhere between the extremes of complete interdependence of nations and complete self-sufficiency, we should chart a course" (p. 12). "The broad policy should take the welfare of the whole nation into account: it is a job for government if there is to be any real plan at all. That does not mean, however, that the government must regulate every detail" (p. 15). In conclusion this committee believed that it is simpler and wiser for nations to work in the direction of freer trade without the complications and penalties of altering political boundaries.

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**The Struggle for the Pacific.** By Gregory Bienstock. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. 299. \$4.00.

Here is a volume of great intrinsic value, but it is rather late in publication. Perhaps this is the inevitable fate of a book on world politics in an era of swift change, such as that through which civilization is now passing. In his preface the author explains that the book was written in 1935, and he adds a footnote excusing his failure to take account of the Italian conquest of Ethiopia. He discusses at length the possibility of a war between Japan and Russia and disregards almost entirely any struggle between Japan and China. His view of world affairs takes on a kind of unreality when he speaks of Italy as playing dummy in a game between Britain and France, and when he suggests that China need not be reckoned with as a united nation.

This unreality is most serious in the third part of the book, in which the author discusses war and strategy. Here he leaves China out of a possible land war between Japan and Russia, and leaves Great Britain out of a possible naval struggle between Japan and the United States. He speaks of the Chinese communist armies, now marching against Japan in the region of the Great Wall, as being south of the Yangtse, and makes no mention of the fortification of Hong Kong.

On the other hand, the first two parts constituting four fifths of the volume, are of great value. They give a careful and detailed account of the Pacific world, its historical development and its international rivalries; and they show how the Pacific is in our day surpassing the Atlantic in importance. Most of the old world nations recede into the background, and China, Japan, Russia, Great Britain, and the United States appear as protagonists in the struggle for economic and political power. The author treats this complicated play of forces with impressive erudition and fine objectivity. He traces the growth of these major powers, and shows the part that each

plays and may play in the drama of the Pacific. He explains the issues of the conflict but also develops the possibilities of compromise and co-operation.

Its European authorship gives the book added interest for American readers. These may find means of truer judgment of their country's policies through the criticism of a student of world affairs for whom America is "the other side of the Atlantic," and who reports that "just like the Monroe doctrine, the Hay doctrine conceals an offensive spirit behind a defensive façade."

The author's comprehensive learning and his impartial spirit make up in large part for the fact that a number of his statements are now out of date. One is willing to overlook, in a book written two years ago, a statement that Chiang Kai-shek controls only four provinces, when one comes upon so prophetic an utterance as the following: "The government of Nanking, prepared as it is to make every kind of compromise on the provinces on the periphery of Great China, will fight to the death for the Chinese state nucleus in the lower Yang-tse."

NORMAN F. COLEMAN

Reed College

**Newspapers and the News.** By Susan M. Kingsbury, Hornell Hart, and Associates. New York: Putnam, 1937. Pp. xi, 238. \$2.50.

Technological changes over recent decades have tended to make the individual the victim of the interests that happen to control important sources of public information. In building up resistance to this type of exploitation, social-studies teachers have been handicapped by a lack of accurate knowledge of institutions such as the press, the movie, and the radio. The rapidly growing body of scholarly literature on these subjects has an important addition in this group of studies from the graduate school of Bryn Mawr College. The book includes a series of investigations made by the authors, as well as a summary of other studies of news presentation. Many of the authors' own researches have been published in the

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*Journalism Quarterly* and a general summary of their results came out in the October, 1930, numbers of the *New Republic*. While the book publication adds little to the articles, it does make the entire subject much more accessible and convenient for study.

Of greatest interest to teachers are the charts showing the relative emphasis newspapers give to different types of news, and the quantitative and qualitative studies of bias in the presentation of news regarding public controversies. Several of the better known metropolitan journals are tested in these respects and classified as laggards or leaders in ethical journalism. Other studies of less interest are those on pernicious medical advertising and on the press and social service. The striking conflict between claims for impartiality and what newspapers actually do is made clear. Press associations insist in principle upon a sharp distinction between news and editorial judgment. "News reports should be free from opinion or bias of any kind" is the prevailing tone among these professional organizations. Even Hearst can be quoted as ordering an overt display of impartiality. But practice is far from principle, and the late *United States Daily*, with its motto "all the facts, no opinion," ranked with the less reputable papers on the tests applied here. It is clear that most newspapers should frankly proclaim their purpose to lead the public in the direction they wish it to go, not only by editorial comment but by the selection, writing, and display of news as well. But to admit this would be fatal to reader confidence, and consequently this majority, as well as the less partisan minority, continues to proclaim the sacredness of objectivity in reporting the news.

One fault with the studies of bias, which is recognized by the authors, is that they are merely relative to the press as a whole. Consequently, they throw little light upon the treatment of an issue, such as a labor struggle, which engages the self-interest of the metropolitan press as a type of business.

The simplicity of the measures, however, will commend them to teachers as means of instruction. They are not so intricate but that pupils can apply them roughly to the newspapers distributed locally. Such exercises are valuable in bringing home to pupils an awareness of the pressures that mold the thought of their own society.

The major fault with the book is that the investigations are based upon newspapers of 1929. This detracts from its usefulness as a guide to good news policies. With this exception, its value to social-studies teachers is large; for it furnishes understandings they need every day in their classrooms.

ELMER ELLIS

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